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INDEX TO VOLUME LXI

*

AUTHOR INDEX

Alcorn, Marvin D., and Gjerde, Clayton M.—Selected References on Extra-class Activities, 242–47

Alt, Pauline M.—Relationship of Physique and Temperament, 267–76

Ames, Dora A.—A Community Occupational Survey as a Public Relations Instrument, 30–33

Anderson, Harold A.—Educational News and Editorial Comment, 379–91

Angell, Melvin A.—High School English—Can We Justify It as a College-Admission Requirement? 351–56

Anspaugh, G. E.—Qualities Related to High Scholarship in Secondary School, 337–40

Auble, Carolyn S., and Auble, Donavon.—The Relation between High-School and College Participation in Extra-curriculum Activities, 541–43

Barnes, Richard A.—Recruiting Teachers for Tomorrow's Schools, 357–60

Beauchamp, Wilbur L.—Educational News and Editorial Comment, 191–200

Beauchamp, Wilbur L.—Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction (Science), 111–13

Brace, D. K.—Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction (Health and Physical Education), 178–80

Brodsky, Charles.—Some Earmarks of Ineffective and of Good Teaching, 237–41

Burns, Norman, and Pattillo, Manning M.—Selected References on Higher Education, 548–52

Burton, Dwight L.—Spelling Can Be Taught to High-School Students, 163–67

Camden, Blanche.—For a Better Understanding of Entering Students, 39–42

Camp, Kenneth L., and Simpson, Ray H.—Diagnosing Community Reading, 98–100

Capehart, Bertis E.; Hodges, Allen; and Roth, Robert.—Evaluating the Core Curriculum: A Further Look, 406–12

Committee on Educational Television, University of Chicago.—Television and the University, 202–25

Curran, Clyde E.—What Is General Education? 79–84

Dunkel, Harold B.—Educational News and Editorial Comment, 1–15

Eisen, Edna E.—Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction (Geography), 109–11

Emanuel, William H.—College-Entrance Requirements Ten Years after the Eight-Year Study, 521–26

Erickson, Robert D.—Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction (Art), 176–78

Friesen, John K., and Parsey, John M.—Folk Schools in Canada, 141–50

Gaier, Eugene L.; Jones, Stewart; and Simpson, Ray H.—Factors Related to Measures of Professional Resourcefulness, 158–62

Garry, Ralph.—Sociodrama in a High School Adjustment Class, 151–57

Gjerde, Clayton M., and Alcorn, Marvin D.—Selected References on Extra-class Activities, 242–47

Haggard, Ernest A.; Poznak, Margaret; and Norberg, Kenneth.—Selected References on Educational Psychology, 298–306

Hartung, Maurice L.—Educational News and Editorial Comment, 65–77, 507–19

Havighurst, Robert J.—Poised at the Crossroads of Life: Suggestions to Parents and Teachers of Young Adolescents, 329–36

Hawkins, George E.—Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction (Mathematics), 113–16

Hodges, Allen; Capehart, Bertis E.; and Roth, Robert.—Evaluating the Core Curriculum: A Further Look, 406–12

Hogan, Thomas F.—A Semantics Club in a Junior High School, 488–90

Howell, Wallace J.—Work-Study Skills of Adolescents in Grades VII–XIV, 277–82

Hutson, Percival W., and Norberg, Kenneth D.—Selected References on Guidance, 361–68

Irvin, Charles E.—Evaluating a Training Program in Listening for College Freshmen, 25–29

Jacob, Peyton.—The Junior College in Georgia, 290–97

Jacobson, Paul B., and Wiegman, Robert R.—Selected References on the Organization and Administration of Secondary Education, 426–32

Jamrich, John X.—Current Practices in Courses for the Preparation of Secondary-School Teachers, 283–89

Jenkins, Nora C.—Visual Performance and Scholastic Success, 544–47
Jones, Stewart; Gaier, Eugene L.; and Simpson, Ray H.—Factors Related to Measures of Professional Resourcefulness, 158–62
Justman, Joseph.—Personal and Social Adjustment of Intellectually Gifted Accelerants and Non-accelerants in Junior High Schools, 468–78

Kaulfers, Walter V.—Midcentury Enrolments in High-School Foreign Languages, 232–36
Keller, Naomi.—Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction (Home Economics), 170–72
Keohane, Robert E.—Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction (The Social Studies), 104–9
Kimpton, Lawrence A.—Convocation Address in Spring, 1953, quoted in "Educational News and Editorial Comment," 383–85
Koos, Leonard V.—Junior High School Reorganization after a Half-Century, 393–99, 479–87, 527–40

Luecke, Editha.—A Course in Social Fundamentals Contributes to Adjustment, 93–97

McFarland, John W.—Developing Effective Home Rooms, 400–405
McLendon, Jonathon C.—Are Pupils Learning the Basic Skills of English? 226–31
Martorana, S. V.—The Community-College Movement in Canada, 341–50
Meserve, Bruce E.—The University of Illinois List of Mathematical Competencies, 85–92
Moore, Walter J.—Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction, 43–53

Norberg, Kenneth D.—Selected References (Films), 120–22, 180–82, 305–6, 368

Parsey, John M., and Friesen, John K.—Folk Schools in Canada, 141–50
Pattillo, Manning M., and Burns, Norman.—Selected References on Higher Education, 548–52
Powers, Francis F.—Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction (Foreign Language), 116–20
Poznak, Margaret; Haggard, Ernest A.; and Norberg, Kenneth.—Selected References on Educational Psychology, 298–306

Roth, Robert; Capehart, Bertis E.; and Hodges, Allen.—Evaluating the Core Curriculum: A Further Look, 406–12

Sands, John E.—Qualifications and Responsibilities of Directors of Student Teaching and of Supervising Teachers, 34–38
Scherer, George A. C.—The Bavarian Teacher-training Program, 421–25
Seyfert, Warren C.—Educational News and Editorial Comment, 129–39
Seyfert, Warren C.—Experiences in Faculty Self-determination, 458–67
Simpson, Ray H., and Camp, Kenneth L.—Diagnosing Community Reading, 98–100
Simpson, Ray H.; Gaier, Eugene L.; and Jones, Stewart.—Factors Related to Measures of Professional Resourcefulness, 158–62
Smith, Dora V.—Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction (English), 101–4
Smith, Homer J.—Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction (Industrial and Vocational Arts), 168–70
Swanson, Edwin A.—Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction (Business Education), 172–75
Swineford, Frances.—Selected References on Statistics, the Theory of Test Construction, and Factor Analysis, 491–99

Talley, V. Howard.—Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction (Music), 175–76
Thompson, James J.—Teaching Scientific Method in a Unit on Bacterial Disease, 413–20
Thomson, Procter.—Educational News and Editorial Comment, 253–59
Traxler, Arthur E.—Remedial Reading Today, 17–24

University of Chicago Committee on Educational Television.—Television and the University, 202–25

Wiegman, Robert R., and Jacobson, Paul B.—Selected References on the Organization and Administration of Secondary Education, 426–32
Woellner, Robert C.—Educational News and Editorial Comment, 315–27

SUBJECT INDEX

(Acceleration) The University of Buffalo Experiment, Harold A. Anderson, 385–86
Adjustment, A Course in Social Fundamentals Contributes to, Editha Luecke, 93–97
Adjustment, Personal and Social, of Intellectually Gifted Accelerants and Non-accelerants in Junior High Schools, Joseph Justman, 468–78
Adjustment Class, Sociodrama in a High-School, Ralph Garry, 151–57
Administration, Selected References on the Organization and, of Secondary Education, Paul B. Jacobson and Robert R. Wiegman, 426–32
Administrators, Conferences and Workshops for, Wilbur L. Beauchamp, 200

(Adolescents) Poised at the Crossroads of Life: Suggestions to Parents and Teachers of Young Adolescents, Robert J. Havighurst, 329–36
Adolescents on Our Minds (Employment of teen-agers, The gap between school and work, Federal Employment Service aids youth, Drop-outs and diplomas, Study in foreign countries, Youth and citizenship, Why don't students do their best? Learning to give intelligently), Robert C. Woellner, 315–27
Aristotle on Education, Procter Thomson, 253–59
Art, Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction in, Robert D. Erickson, 176–78
(Articulation) From School to College, Harold A. Anderson, 379–85
(Attacks on Education) Sticks and Stones (Arthur E. Bestor, Jr., in *School and Society;* Albert Lynd in *Quackery in the Public Schools;* Theodore C. Blegen in the *Duke University Centennial on Teacher Training*), Maurice L. Hartung, 507–14

Bavarian Teacher-training Program, The, George A. C. Scherer, 421–25
Biology, Two useful textbooks for, Wilbur L. Beauchamp, 195–96
Biology course, Basing the, on principles (*General Biology: 10th Year*, New York City Curriculum Bulletin), Wilbur L. Beauchamp, 195
Biology in high school (United States Office of Education Bulletin 1952, No. 9), Wilbur L. Beauchamp, 193–95
Business Education, Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction in, Edwin A. Swanson, 172–75

Canada, The Community-College Movement in, S. V. Martorana, 341–50
Canada, Folk Schools in, John M. Parsey and John K. Friesen, 141–50
Center for the Study of Human Behavior, A, Harold A. Anderson, 387
Citizenship, Youth and, Robert C. Woellner, 324–25
Civilization, The Transit of (Education today in Germany, Education in other countries, Exchange-student program), Robert E. Keohane, 443–47
College-Admission Requirement, Can We Justify High-School English as a, Melvin A. Angell, 351–56
College-Entrance Requirements Ten Years after the Eight-Year Study, William H. Emanuel, 521–26
Communication Skills, Research Needed in Nonverbal, Warren C. Seyfert, 135–37
Communism in Education (Reports on other continents, Communists in our schools, The views of President Eisenhower), Robert E. Keohane, 447–48
(Community Chest) Learning to give intelligently, Robert C. Woellner, 326–27
Community-College Movement in Canada, The, S. V. Martorana, 341–50
Community Occupational Survey as a Public Relations Instrument, A, Dora A. Ames, 30–33
Conference on Guidance and Personnel, 265
Conference on Reading, Annual, 263–65
Conferences and Workshops for Administrators, Wilbur L. Beauchamp, 200
(Core Curriculum) The Core of the Core, Harold B. Dunkel, 14–15
Core Curriculum, Evaluating the: A Further Look, Bertis E. Capehart, Allen Hodges, and Robert Roth, 406–12
(Counseling) Adolescents on Our Mines, Robert C. Woellner, 315–17
(Counseling) Federal Employment Service aids youth, Robert C. Woellner, 318–20
(Counseling Parents) Keeping Up with the Junior Joneses, Harold B. Dunkel, 1–3
Curriculum, Methods of Teaching and Study and Supervision, and Measurement, Walter J. Moore, 43–53
Curriculum Organization, World History and, Warren C. Seyfert, 134–35

Driver Education, Scheduling, Maurice L. Hartung, 76–77
(Drop-outs) Early School Leavers (Study by Kentucky Association of Colleges, Secondary, and Elementary Schools), Harold A. Anderson, 388–89
Drop-outs and diplomas, Robert C. Woellner, 320–23

Early School Leavers (Study by Kentucky Association of Colleges, Secondary, and Elementary Schools), Harold A. Anderson, 388–89
Editorial Policies, Some Comments on (Selected References to continue, Reviews of books, Articles published, Educational monographs), Maurice L. Hartung, 65–68
(Education) "Experiment" vs. "Experiment," Harold B. Dunkel, 6–7
Educational Product, "Plugging" the (*Great Books: Panacea or What?* by Edward A. Fitzpatrick; *Who Killed Grammar?* by Harry R. Warfel), Harold B. Dunkel, 7–9
(Eisenhower, Dwight D.) The views of the President (*American Library Association Bulletin*), Robert E. Keohane, 449
(Employment Counseling) Federal Employment Service aids youth, Robert C. Woellner, 318–20
Employment of teen-agers, Robert C. Woellner, 317
English, Are Pupils Learning the Basic Skills of? Jonathon C. McLendon, 226–31
English, Can We Justify High-School, as a College-Admission Requirement? Melvin A. Angell, 351–56
English, Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction in, Dora V. Smith, 101–4
Evaluating the Core Curriculum: A Further Look, Bertis E. Capehart, Allen Hodges, and Robert Roth, 406–12
Exchange-Student Program, Robert E. Keohane, 446–47

Extra-class Activities, Selected References on, Clayton M. Gjerde and Marvin D. Alcorn, 242–47
Extra-curriculum Activities, The Relation between High-School and College Participation in, Carolyn S. Auble and Donavon Auble, 541–43

Factor Analysis, Statistics, and the Theory of Test Construction, Selected References on, Frances Swineford, 491–99
Faculty Self-determination, Experiences in, Warren C. Seyfert, 458–67
(Failures in high school) Why don't students do their best? Robert C. Woellner, 325–26
Films, Selected Instructional, Kenneth D. Norberg, 120–22, 180–82, 305–6, 368
Folk Schools in Canada, John M. Parsey and John K. Friesen, 141–50
(Ford Foundation, Fund for Adult Education) Parent Education Project at University of Chicago, Harold A. Anderson, 387–88
(Ford Foundation, Study of Behavioral Sciences) A Center for the Study of Human Behavior, Harold A. Anderson, 387
Foreign countries, Study in, Robert C. Woellner, 323–24
(Foreign education) Education in Other Countries, Robert E. Keohane, 446
Foreign Language, Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction in, Francis F. Powers, 116–20
Foreign Languages, Midcentury Enrolments in High-School, Walter V. Kaulfers, 232–36
Foreign Languages on the March Again, Harold B. Dunkel, 3–6
(Foreign Students) The Stranger within and without Our Gates, Harold B. Dunkel, 9–11

General Education, What Does, Do to Students? Harold B. Dunkel, 11–14
General Education, What Is? Clyde E. Curran, 79–84
Geography, Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction in, Edna E. Eisen, 109–11
Georgia, The Junior College in, Peyton Jacob, 290–97
(Germany) The Bavarian Teacher-training Program, George A. C. Scherer, 421–25
Germany, Education Today in, Robert E. Keohane, 443–46
Gifted, Intellectually, Accelerants and Non-accelerants in Junior High Schools, Personal and Social Adjustment of, Joseph Justman, 468–78
(Great Books) "Plugging" the Educational Product (*Great Books: Panacea or What?* by Edward A. Fitzpatrick; *Who Killed Grammar?* by Harry R. Warfel), Harold B. Dunkel, 7–9
Groups, Teachers as leaders of (*Teachers Prepare for Discussion Group Leadership* by Stephen M. Corey and Others; *Discussion Guide for Teachers of English* by Committee of National Council for Teachers of English), Wilbur L. Beauchamp, 199–200
(Guidance) The gap between school and work, Robert C. Woellner, 317–18
Guidance, Selected References on, Percival W. Hutson and Kennth D. Norberg, 361–68

Health and Physical Education, Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction in, D. K. Brace, 178–80
Higher Education, Selected References on, Manning M. Pattillo and Norman Burns, 548–52
(High School) Centennial Anniversary in St. Louis, Maurice L. Hartung, 74
Home Economics, Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction in, Naomi Keller, 170–72
Home Rooms, Developing Effective, John W. McFarland, 400–405
Home-Study Courses, Robert C. Woellner, 327
Human Behavior, A Center for the Study of, Harold A. Anderson, 387

Industrial and Vocational Arts, Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction in, Homer J. Smith, 168–70

Junior College in Georgia, The, Peyton Jacob, 290–97
Junior High School Reorganization after a Half-Century, Leonard V. Koos, 393–99, 479–87, 527–40
Juvenile Delinquency and Narcotics, Wilbur L. Beauchamp, 197

Kawin, Ethel, Director of Parent Education Project, Harold A. Anderson, 387–88
Kimpton, Lawrence A., Convocation Address in Spring, 1953, quoted in "Educational News and Editorial Comment," 382–85
Korean Schools, Teachers To Help, 260

(Leaders in Education) There Were Giants in the Earth in Those Days, Warren C. Seyfert, 132–34
Lecture vs. discussion methods of teaching, Robert E. Keohane, 455–56
(Linguistic analysis) "Plugging" the Educational Product (*Great Books: Panacea or What?* by Edward A. Fitzpatrick; *Who Killed Grammar?* by Harry R. Warfel), Harold B. Dunkel, 7–9
Listening, Evaluating a Training Program in, for College Freshmen, Charles E. Irvin, 25–29

McCarran Act and Progress in Science, The, Wilbur L. Beauchamp, 196–97
Materials Useful for Teachers (To help in teaching about race, The world we live in, Teachers as leaders of groups), Wilbur L. Beauchamp, 197–200
Mathematical Competencies, The University of Illinois List of, Bruce E. Meserve, 85–92
Mathematical Needs, The, of Engineers—and Others, Maurice L. Hartung, 72–74
Mathematics, Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction in, George E. Hawkins, 113–16
Mathematics Teachers, Publications for (Two new journals, Reports on mathematics re-

search, Data on mathematical offerings, Improving the mathematics curriculum), Maurice L. Hartung, 518–19
Mental Measurements Yearbook, The Fourth, Maurice L. Hartung, 517–18
(Moral and ethical values in schools) Time To Take a Stand, Warren C. Seyfert, 129–31
Music, Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction in, V. Howard Talley, 175–76

Narcotics, Juvenile Delinquency and, Wilbur L. Beauchamp, 197

Occupational Survey, A Community, as a Public Relations Instrument, Dora A. Ames, 30–33
Organization and Administration of Secondary Education, Selected References on the, Paul B. Jacobson and Robert R. Wiegman, 426–32
(Organizing the faculty) Experiences in Faculty Self-determination, Warren C. Seyfert, 458–67

Parent Education (University of Chicago project under direction of Ethel Kawin), Harold A. Anderson, 387–88
(Parents of teen-agers) Keeping Up with the Junior Joneses, Harold B. Dunkel, 1–3
(Parents of Young Adolescents) Poised at the Crossroads of Life: Suggestions to Parents and Teachers of Young Adolescents, Robert J. Havighurst, 329–36
Personal and Social Adjustment of Intellectually Gifted Accelerants and Non-accelerants in Junior High Schools, Joseph Justman, 468–78
Physical Education, Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction in Health and, D. K. Brace, 178–80
Physique and Temperament, Relationship of, Pauline M. Alt, 267–76
Professional Resourcefulness, Factors Related to Measures of, Eugene L. Gaier, Stewart Jones, and Ray H. Simpson, 158–62
Psychology, Selected References on Educational, Ernest A. Haggard, Margaret Poznak, and Kenneth D. Norberg, 298–306
Publications, Useful (Advice on staying in school, Leading a conference, A journal for workers with adults), Warren C. Seyfert, 138–39
Publications for Mathematics Teachers (Two new journals, Reports on mathematics research, Data on mathematical offerings, Improving the mathematics curriculum), Maurice L. Hartung, 518–19

Race, To help in teaching about (*What Is Race?* UNESCO publication), Wilbur L. Beauchamp, 197–98
Reading, Diagnosing Community, Ray H. Simpson and Kenneth L. Camp, 98–100
Reading, Workshop in, Warren C. Seyfert, 139
Reading Today, Remedial, Arthur E. Traxler, 17–24
Resourcefulness, Factors Related to Measures of Professional, Eugene L. Gaier, Stewart Jones, and Ray H. Simpson, 158–62

St. Louis, Centennial Anniversary of Central High School in, Maurice L. Hartung, 74
Schedule in a Small High School, A Modified (T. H. Bell, Superintendent, Rockland, Idaho), Maurice L. Hartung, 516–17
Scholarship, Qualities Related to High, in Secondary School, G. E. Anspaugh, 337–40
Scholastic Success, Visual Performance and, Nora C. Jenkins, 544–47
School to College, From, Harold A. Anderson, 379–85
Science, Latest report on (Committee on Special Bulletins of the National Science Teachers Association in *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*), Wilbur L. Beauchamp, 191–92
Science, The McCarran Act and Progress in, Wilbur L. Beauchamp, 196–97
Science, Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction in, Wilbur L. Beauchamp, 111–13
Science in Secondary Schools (Latest report on science, Facilities for science-teaching, Biology in high school, Basing the course on principles, Two useful textbooks), Wilbur L. Beauchamp, 191–96
Science-teaching, Facilities for (United States Office of Education, Misc. No. 17), Wilbur L. Beauchamp, 192–93
Scientific Method, Teaching, in a Unit on Bacterial Disease, James J. Thompson, 413–20
Selected References, 43–53, 101–22, 168–82, 242–47, 298–306, 361–68, 426–32, 491–99, 548–52
Semantics Club in a Junior High School, A, Thomas F. Hogan, 488–90
Size for a High School, Is There an Optimum? Maurice L. Hartung, 68–70
Small High School, A Modified Schedule in a (T. H. Bell, Superintendent, Rockland, Idaho), Maurice L. Hartung, 516–17
Social Fundamentals, A Course in, Contributes to Adjustment, Editha Luecke, 93–97
Social Studies, The (Non-textbook Materials for the student, The "How To Do It" series, Education of social-studies teachers, Lecture vs. discussion), Robert E. Keohane, 452–54
Social Studies, Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction in the, Robert E. Keohane, 104–9
Social-studies teachers, Education of, Robert E. Keohane, 455
Social Welfare Information for Teachers, Harold B. Dunkel, 14
Sociodrama in a High-School Adjustment Class, Ralph Garry, 151–57
Spelling Can Be Taught to High-School Students, Dwight L. Burton, 163–67
Statistics, the Theory of Test Construction, and Factor Analysis, Selected References on, Frances Swineford, 491–99
Student Teaching, Qualifications and Responsibilities of Directors of, and of Supervising Teachers, John E. Sands, 34–38
Students, For a Better Understanding of Entering, Blanche Camden, 39–42

Teachers, Current Practices in Courses for the Preparation of Secondary-School, John X. Jamrich, 283–89
Teachers, Recruiting for Tomorrow's Schools, Richard A. Barnes, 357–60
(Teachers of Young Adolescents) Poised at the Crossroads of Life: Suggestions to Parents and Teachers of Young Adolescents, Robert J. Havighurst, 329–36
Teacher's Time, Better Utilization of (Conference of National Manpower Council), Maurice L. Hartung, 514–16
Teacher-training Program, The Bavarian, George A. C. Scherer, 421–25
Teaching, Some Earmarks of Ineffective and of Good, Charles Brodsky, 237–41
Teaching Values, Harold A. Anderson, 390–91
(Television) Educational TV, Maurice L. Hartung, 74–76
Television and the University, University of Chicago Committee on Educational Television, 202–25
Television Omnibus (TV-Radio Workshop of the Ford Foundation), Harold A. Anderson, 389–90
Temperament, Relationship of Physique and, Pauline M. Alt, 267–76
Test Construction, Selected References on Theory of, and Factor Analysis, Frances Swineford, 491–99
Transit of Civilization, The (Education today in Germany, Education in other countries, Exchange-student program), Robert E. Keohane, 443–47
Tyler, Ralph W., Director of Center for Study of Human Behavior, Harold A. Anderson, 387
University of Buffalo Experiment, The, Harold A. Anderson, 385–86
University of Chicago, Relocation of Bachelor's Degree (Convocation address of Chancellor Lawrence A. Kimpton), Harold A. Anderson, 382–85
University of Chicago Tea, Maurice L. Hartung, 77

Values, Teaching, Harold A. Anderson, 390–91
Visual Performance and Scholastic Success, Nora C. Jenkins, 544–47
Vocational Arts, Industrial and, Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction in, Homer J. Smith, 168–70

(Word-Study) A Semantics Club in a Junior High School, Thomas F. Hogan, 488–90
Workshop in Community Human Relations, Chicago, 265
Workshop in Reading, Warren C. Seyfert, 139
Work-Study Skills of Adolescents in Grades VII–XIV, Wallace J. Howell, 277–82
World Affairs, Education in, Robert E. Keohane, 449–52
World History and Curriculum Organization, Warren C. Seyfert, 134–35

(Yearbooks of high schools) "Would You Care To Buy an Ad?" Warren C. Seyfert, 137–38
Yearbooks of 1952–53, Representative (Department of Elementary School Principals, American Association of School Administrators, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Society for the Study of Education), 260–63
Youth and Citizenship, Robert C. Woellner, 324–25

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

JANUARY, 1953 (Harold B. Dunkel): Keeping Up with the Junior Joneses, 1–3; Foreign Languages on the March Again, 3–6; "Experiment" vs. "Experiment," 6–7; "Plugging" the Educational Product, 7–9; The Stranger within and without Our Gates, 9–11; What Does General Education Do to Students? 11–14; Social Welfare Information for Teachers, 14; The Core of the Core, 14–15

FEBRUARY, 1953 (Maurice L. Hartung): Some Comments on Editorial Policies (Selected References to continue, Reviews of books, Articles published, Educational monographs), 65–68; Is There an Optimum Size for a High School? 68–72; The Mathematical Needs of Engineers—and Others, 72–74; Centennial Anniversary in St. Louis, 74; Educational TV, 74–76; Scheduling Driver Education, 76–77; University of Chicago Tea, 77

MARCH, 1953 (Warren C. Seyfert): Time To Take a Stand, 129–31; There Were Giants in the Earth in Those Days, 132–34; World History and Curriculum Organization, 134–35; Research Needed in Nonverbal Communication Skills, 135–37; "Would You Care To Buy an Ad?" 137–38; Useful Publications (Advice on staying in school, Leading a conference, A journal for workers with adults), 138–39; Workshop in Reading, 139

APRIL, 1953 (Wilbur L. Beauchamp): Science in Secondary Schools (Latest report on science, Facilities for science-teaching, Biology in high school, Basing the course on principles, Two useful textbooks), 191–96; The McCarran Act and Progress in Science, 196–97; Juvenile Delinquency and Narcotics, 197; Materials Useful for Teachers (To help in teaching about race, The world we live in, Teachers as leaders of groups), 197–200; Conferences and Workshops for Administrators, 200

MAY, 1953 (Procter Thomson): Aristotle on Education, 253–59; Teachers To Help Korean Schools, 260; Representative Yearbooks of 1952–53 (Basic elements for learning, Changes

in society and in schools, Analysis of education in our culture, Two parts of NSSE yearbook), 260–63; Annual Conference on Reading, 263–65; Guidance and Personnel Conference, 265; Chicago Workshop on Community Human Relations, 265

SEPTEMBER, 1953 (Robert C. Woellner): Adolescents on Our Minds (Employment of teenagers, The gap between school and work, Federal Employment Service aids youth, Dropouts and diplomas, Study in foreign countries, Youth and citizenship, Why don't students do their best? Learning to give intelligently), 315–27; Home-Study Courses, 327

OCTOBER, 1953 (Harold A. Anderson): From School to College, 379–85; The University of Buffalo Experiment, 385–86; A Center for the Study of Human Behavior, 387; Parent Education, 387–88; Early School Leavers, 388–89; Television Omnibus, 389–90; Teaching Values, 390–91

NOVEMBER, 1953 (Robert E. Keohane): The Transit of Civilization (Education today in Germany, Education in other countries, Exchange-student program), 443–47; Communism in Education (Reports on other continents, Communists in our schools, The views of the President), 447–49; Education in World Affairs, 449–52; The Social Studies (Non-textbook materials for the student, The "How To Do It" series, Education of social-studies teachers, Lecture vs. discussion), 452–56

DECEMBER, 1953 (Maurice L. Hartung): Sticks and Stones, 507–14; Better Utilization of the Teacher's Time, 514–16; A Modified Schedule in a Small High School, 516–17; The Mental Measurements Yearbook, 517–18; Publications for Mathematics Teachers (Two new journals, Reports on mathematics research, Data on mathematics offerings, Improving the mathematics curriculum), 518–19

WHO'S WHO, 16, 78, 140, 201, 266, 328, 392, 457, 520

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Barnhart, Clarence L., and Thorndike, E. L., Thorndike-Barnhart High School Dictionary (Mitford M. Mathews), 369–70

Bent, Rudyard K.; Boardman, Charles W.; and Douglass, Harl R., Democratic Supervision in Secondary Schools (Orville E. Peterson), 554–55

Bernard, Harold W., Mental Hygiene for Classroom Teachers (Augusta Jameson), 308–9

Boardman, Charles W.; Douglass, Harl R.; and Bent, Rudyard K., Democratic Supervision in Secondary Schools (Orville E. Peterson), 554–55

Brewer, John M., Wellsprings of Democracy (Stanley E. Dimond), 311

Brooks, William O., and Tracy, George R., Modern Physical Science (G. P. Cahoon), 124–25

Cleary, Florence Damon; Meier, Arnold R.; and Davis, Alice M., A Curriculum for Citizenship (Paul W. Harnly), 307–8

Corey, Stephen M., Action Research To Improve School Practices (C. Leslie Cushman), 500–501

Curtis, Francis D., and Mallinson, George Greisen, Science in Daily Life (Bryan F. Swan), 372–73

Darley, John G., and Froehlich, Clifford P., Studying Students (Kenneth V. Lottick), 58–59

Davis, Alice M.; Meier, Arnold R.; and Cleary, Florence Damon, A Curriculum for Citizenship (Paul W. Harnly), 307–8

Douglass, Harl R.; Boardman, Charles W.; and Bent, Rudyard K., Democratic Supervision in Secondary Schools (Orville E. Peterson), 554–55

Dunfee, Maxine M., and Hoppe, Arthur, contributors with Robert W. Richey, Planning for Teaching (John W. Devor), 123–24

Faunce, Roland C., and Johnston, Edgar G., Student Activities in Secondary Schools (L. A. Van Dyke), 248–49

Flaum, Laurence S., The Activity High School (John A. Ramseyer), 434–36

French, Florence Filten; Levenson, William B.; and Rockwell, Vera Cober, Radio English (Gladys L. Borchers), 186–87

Friend, Joseph H.; Guralnik, David B.; and Others (compilers), Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language: College Edition (Mitford M. Mathews), 369–70

Fries, Charles Carpenter, The Structure of English (Edna Lue Furness), 370–71

Froehlich, Clifford P., and Darley, John G., Studying Students (Kenneth V. Lottick), 58–59

Guralnik, David B.; Friend, Joseph H.; and Others (compilers), Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language: College Edition (Mitford M. Mathews), 369–70

Hollinshead, Byron S., Who Should Go to College (Edna Lue Furness), 503–4

Hoppe, Arthur, and Dunfee, Maxine M., contributors with Robert W. Richey, Planning for Teaching (John W. Devor), 123–24

Jacobson, Paul B. (editor), The American Secondary School (Frank S. Albright), 183–84

Jelenko, Victor, The Republic of the Schools (Carroll D. Champlin), 249–50

Johnston, Edgar G., and Faunce, Roland C., Student Activities in Secondary Schools (L. A. Van Dyke), 248–49

Jordan, A. M., Measurement in Education (Arthur E. Traxler), 433–34

Kelley, Earl C., and Rasey, Marie I., Education and the Nature of Man (Franklin Bobbitt), 56–57

Levenson, William B.; French, Florence Filten; and Rockwell, Vera Cober, Radio English (Gladys L. Borchers), 186–87

Mallinson, George Greisen, and Curtis, Francis D., Science in Daily Life (Bryan F. Swan), 372–73

Meier, Arnold R.; Cleary, Florence Damon; and Davis, Alice M., A Curriculum for Citizenship (Paul W. Harnly), 307–8

Neff, William Lee, and Planer, Mabel Gertrude, World History for a Better World (Burr W. Phillips), 556–57

Newsom, Carroll V. (editor), A Television Policy for Education (Cyril O. Houle), 436

Peattie, Rod and Lisa, The Law (Dorothy McClure Fraser), 310–11

Planer, Mabel Gertrude, and Neff, William Lee, World History for a Better World (Burr W. Phillips), 556–57

Pollak, Otto, and Collaborators, Social Science and Psychotherapy for Children (Martin B. Loeb), 57–58

Rasey, Marie I., and Kelley, Earl C., Education and the Nature of Man (Franklin Bobbitt), 56–57

Richey, Robert W., with contributions by Maxine M. Dunfee and Arthur Hoppe, Planning for Teaching (John W. Devor), 123–24

Robbins, Florence Greenhoe, Educational Sociology (Bernice L. Neugarten), 555–56

Robinson, Clark, Making the Most of School and Life (Karl C. Garrison), 309–10

Rockwell, Vera Cober; French, Florence Filten; and Levenson, William B., Radio English (Gladys L. Borchers), 186–87

Rugg, Harold, The Teacher of Teachers (William H. Burton), 54–55

Simpson, Ray H., Improving Teaching-learning Processes (John Withall), 501–3

Thorndike, E. L., and Barnhart, Clarence L., Thorndike-Barnhart High School Dictionary (Mitford M. Mathews), 369–70

Townsend, Agatha, and Traxler, Arthur E. (editors), Improving Transition from School to College (Edward Sanders), 553–54

Tracy, George R., and Brooks, William O., Modern Physical Science (G. P. Cahoon), 124–25

Traxler, Arthur E., and Townsend, Agatha (editors), Improving Transition from School to College (Edward Sanders), 553–54

Wells, Harrington, Secondary Science Education (Herbert S. Zim), 55–56

Wiles, Kimball, Teaching for Better Schools (Roland C. Faunce), 436–37

Wynne, John P., General Education in Theory and Practice (Leonard V. Koos), 184–86

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

59–63, 125–28, 187–89, 250–52, 311–14, 373–77, 437–42, 504–6, 557–60

73873

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*

KEEPING UP WITH THE JUNIOR JONESES

PARENTS can keep up intellectually with their children, and the schools can help them do it. This is the tenor of a suggestion made by John S. Diekhoff, director of the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, in the November issue of the *National Parent-Teacher*. Entitling his article, "Keeping Pace with Youth," Diekhoff begins by citing the familiar fact that many parents "take" various subjects for a second time when their children take them and demand help at home. If the subject matter and its mode of presentation have not changed too much in the intervening years, the interested parent can often rise to the occasion, at least after he has time to brush up his knowledge and get his hand in again.

But some parents find their offspring progressing to an educational level beyond that which they themselves attained. Others find their knowledge hopelessly rusty or discover that they have failed to keep up with books and concepts new since their own school days. In any event, the result of curriculum reorganization has often been that new subjects have been introduced or old subjects are studied in new groupings or presented in new ways. For these and other reasons, many parents find it difficult to keep in touch with their children's intellectual development and to keep abreast of it. Many of them would probably like help in doing so.

Diekhoff appreciates that all this is not so simple as it sounds. He is well aware of the adolescents' need to break away from their families and to achieve individual status as young adults. As he says, "Keeping up with maturing youth is sometimes a stand-by operation . . . in which parents get no help from their sons and daughters." Diekhoff realizes that a young person may regard his parents' interest in him and his concerns as an in-

trusion into his privacy. But perhaps, as Diekhoff suggests, "The youth who goes away from his parents in this sense will come home again, if they will welcome him and are ready for him."

The schools can help in preparing for this homecoming. Diekhoff is not doctrinaire concerning how this help is best given parents. Reading lists, classes, or discussion groups for parents, possibly even occasional classes for parents and students, are among the possibilities. The nature of local school programs and of local circumstances should undoubtedly decide the actual techniques to be adopted by any school or system.

Whatever the precise plan used, the general idea seems to have much to recommend it from the point of view of both school and parents. Most schools are eager to serve their communities. This suggestion points to a field of service in which the school can function more adequately and more properly than is the case with many spheres of activity suggested to it. Then, too, there seem few better ways of communicating to parents a sympathetic and intelligent understanding of what the school is trying to do. The result of such homework by parents should be a more profound insight into modern education than they can possibly obtain through parents' meetings, news letters, and similar techniques. For example, parents who have in some manner actually worked through a school's social-studies course should be free from any misconceptions that this subject is merely a frilly substitute for the sturdy current-events or civics classes of their own day, that the material is subversive or the teacher a Communist, or that students never have to do any work nowadays.

The communication can also be two-way. The school which wants from its constituency intelligent criticism of its curriculum seems most likely to get that kind of criticism if the constituency works through the curriculum carefully at first hand.

Some parents would now certainly welcome help in keeping pace intellectually with their children, and probably more would become interested once programs of this general sort became available and publicized. But beyond any utility which these courses have for their immediate purpose of enabling parents to grow intellectually along with their children, they offer interesting possibilities for giving parents a general education.

Too often, present attempts to enable adults to secure or extend their general education suffer from vagueness of aim on the part of the adult student. He wants "to keep up with things," "to be intelligent and well informed," "to keep from getting stale," "to get out of the rut," or to accomplish other equally meritorious but equally vague purposes. As a result, he may drift from course to course, with no clear aim, no clear program, and no strong feeling that he is getting what

he wants. Then, too, often being mixed in classes with younger students who have no family responsibilities, he frequently finds the competition difficult because his motivation is less intense, his study habits more deteriorated, or his personal life more complicated.

The kind of program Diekhoff suggests might obviate some of these difficulties. The motivation would be fairly clear and immediate. The parent would be working with others of his kind. He would be taking what is presumably a well-organized program, since it would be the regular curriculum of the school. He would probably be "returning to school" at an educational level lower than his previous schooling rather than at a higher one, as is normally the case. Under these circumstances, the intellectual effort might well be easier and more rewarding. Thus, even if the anticipated result of intellectual companionship with his children did not eventuate, the parent might find that he benefited from the experience in other ways. He might, for example, have developed new capacities for that time when the children have grown up and parents face the vacuum of being left to lead their own lives.

There are problems and difficulties, of course, in getting such programs started and in keeping them going. But the idea seems to merit trial in a number of different situations and with different procedures.

Foreign Languages on the March Again

The place of modern foreign languages in the high-school and even in the elementary-school curriculum promises to be a lively issue during the next few years. This prediction may come as a surprise to some school men who have felt that the study of foreign languages was dead and merely didn't know enough to lie down.

The latest rejuvenating shot was administered by Earl J. McGrath, United States commissioner of education, in an address last May to the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association. In this talk, entitled "Language-Study and World Affairs" (*Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI [May, 1952], 205–9), McGrath essentially confesses his past sins and those of other educators in giving too little attention to the study of foreign languages in the face of the new position of the United States in world affairs. While he has no intention of recommending that language study be required of all pupils, he believes that much greater opportunity should be available to students who wish to take advantage of it. And since the Commissioner wants to give students facility in the use of the spoken language as a basis for face-to-face communication, his proposal involves the rather revolutionary suggestion that language instruction begin as early as Grade IV, V, or VI.

Largely, no doubt, as a result of McGrath's challenge, the Rockefeller

Foundation has made a grant of $120,000 to the Modern Language Association for a three-year inquiry (which began October 1) "into the role which foreign languages and literatures now play and should hereafter play in American life."

McGrath's pronouncement and the beginning of the MLA's inquiry have undoubtedly given new hope and renewed interest to many language teachers, who had felt that all "educationists" were intransigently opposed to the study of foreign languages in the schools. To have someone in the upper echelons of the educational hierarchy say a kind word for language-study is, to many language teachers, an occurrence unprecedented to the point of seeming miraculous. Hence many language teachers are already at work to see what can be done to put the Commissioner's proposal into effect. Efforts have ranged from consideration by state associations of possibilities for revising state courses of study to attempts by individual teachers to alter practices in their own schools.

This new interest and activity have great potentialities, but they are equally great for either good or ill. Language teachers will be eager to get something started, to move while enthusiasm is still high, to get some kind of wedge immediately into this crack which has so unexpectedly opened in what seemed to them a solid wall of opposition. But they will do well to restrain their impatience until they are certain what ought to be done and how it can best be done. If course outlines and syllabi are prepared in a rush, there will be great temptation to follow the adage, "Don't stop to get it right, get it written." But striking while the iron is hot is foolish if all you have to hammer with is your bare fist. The status of language-study in America is not sufficiently robust to be able to withstand any new blows which may be dealt it by inadequate improvisations in planning and executing new programs. If the new programs are to have a beneficial effect on the status of foreign-language-teaching in the long run, they should be planned with a careful view to the following conditions.

1. The objectives of these new programs should be carefully selected as those most appropriate and those most susceptible of effective treatment. Obviously, doing the wrong things or trying to do the supposedly "right" things in impossible situations can both be equally fatal to the enterprise. And the objectives selected must have some educational significance and must be achievable to a degree which is educationally worth while. To teach French in Grade IV simply to be teaching French in Grade IV is an undertaking which will not long survive.

2. The objectives should be clearly stated. Language teachers may easily become lost in their own slogans. "Foreign languages for one world," "Language-study for improved international understanding," and the like may be all very well, but they will not

guide work in fifth-grade Spanish. Something short of these global aspirations is needed. Unless objectives are precisely stated, teachers will never know exactly what they are trying to do, and neither they nor anyone else will be in a position to judge the effectiveness of the attempt.

3. These undertakings should be "experimental" in the strictest sense possible, not merely attempts to "try something different." The courses should be planned so that some specific hypotheses are tested and some assessment of success or failure can be made. To have a lot of people trying out a lot of different things will be valuable only if this experience is in such a form that something can be learned from it. Otherwise, when the wave of initial enthusiasm ebbs away, there will be nothing but flotsam left on the educational shingle.

4. Evaluation should be planned for at the outset. Too often teachers devote all their energies to getting a new program started and keeping it going. Then as the end of the program nears, the thought suddenly strikes them that some evaluation of its success or failure would be desirable. But by then it is usually too late. Data which should have been secured earlier are gone forever. Insofar as these new undertakings are to influence the educational programs of the future, careful evaluation of them is vital, and the evaluation must be planned in advance.

5. Provision must be made for continuity. An early start for language-study will amount to little or nothing unless that study can be followed up. There will be little fruit from Spanish in Grades IV and V if a linguistic drought sets in for the next four or five grades. Courses which are not part of a unified, continuing program of language-study will be worse than no courses at all.

The foregoing are a few of the points that language teachers will have to keep in mind if their efforts are to be rewarded. The points are all so obvious that they scarcely seem to need restatement here. The difficulty is that they are easily forgotten in the rush to do something quick.

Local administrators and other educators must also do their share if the ideas are to have a fair test and if the time and energy expended on the new attempts are not to be wasted. And administrators and specialists in education can profit from this wave of enthusiasm. Some have been opposed to the study of foreign languages for reasons every bit as irrational as those sometimes advanced by proponents of language-study. These people will at least have another chance to overcome their prejudices. Others have been honestly uncertain about the place of foreign-language-study in the schools or have reached negative conclusions on the basis of such evidence as they had. Some have felt that language teachers were in a rut, were claiming results which they could not substantiate, or were out of touch with the total program of the school.

For the capable administrator, the

present stirring in the language field offers a real opportunity. Language teachers undertaking new ventures will welcome help which the administrator can provide. He can assist them in selecting objectives which will fit into the school program as a whole. He can aid them in planning courses which will be truly experimental. He can help them with problems of evaluation so that both he and his language staff can work to secure evidence cogent to both parties. The place of the foreign languages in the curriculum has historically been a result of prejudice and pressure rather than a consequence of the judicious weighing of evidence. The educator who is willing to work with his language teachers in their new undertaking will have a new opportunity to educate them and be educated himself, and the result can be a real contribution to educational research in a field where relatively little sound evidence of any sort exists.

There are indeed potentialities in this new movement; but only careful co-operative effort on the part of all concerned will make the potentialities become actualities.

"Experiment" vs. "Experiment"

The preceding remarks about possible experimental courses in foreign languages and the experience of reading several large piles of current educational materials in preparation for writing these "news notes" bring to mind once more some familiar thoughts about the ambiguity of the term "experiment" itself.

Usually, "experiment" has all sorts of scientific, honorific connotations. We have mental pictures of Professor Fermi pulling a rod to start the first self-sustaining reaction in nuclear fission, an operation testing and corroborating physical theory and leading to new miracles in theory and practice. The educational literature is always full of experiments, and we and the people conducting them are always hoping that they are like Professor Fermi's.

But there is another variety. Little Willy receives a chemistry set for Christmas; and after he has run through all the recipes in the instruction book, he usually dumps all the chemicals he has left into one test tube to see what will happen. He has never tried it before. He has always wondered what would happen if he did it. Probably no one else has ever done exactly this before, either. It is certainly touch and go what will happen. This, too, he calls an "experiment."

Many of these same things were true of Professor Fermi's experiment, but the differences in the two cases are what is significant. Nor is the most important difference the fact that, in case of failure, the blast terminating Professor Fermi's attempt would have been louder than that marking Willy's. Fermi was working in relation to a clear theoretical structure on the basis of a long chain of experimental findings. He knew exactly what he

was trying to do and why it should work. Even had the outcome of his particular experiment been disastrous, other workers could have profited from the error; and the chances for success of the next experiment would have been much greater.

Too much educational experimentation tends to resemble Willy's more closely than it does Professor Fermi's. This statement is not intended to imply that the social sciences will necessarily find the perfect paradigm for their method in that of the physical sciences. Nor does it ignore our present difficulties in securing for education a theoretical framework of equal adequacy to that now possessed by physics. The point is merely that we have much "experimenting" in education. A teacher or an administrator gets an idea or, frequently, several ideas and puts them into operation. Too often he works in no theoretical context which can relate his efforts to anything else that has been thought or done. The hypotheses are not clearly formulated and hence are never really tested or established. The results are, consequently, a series of fragmentary efforts but not a growing body of knowledge.

Workers are becoming more and more aware of these difficulties, some of which are inherent in the nature of education as a possible field of study. And graduate training continues to emphasize the factors involved in "design of experiment." The general situation in this regard is improving. But we still have a long way to go.

"Plugging" the Educational Product

Another problem in present-day education is mirrored in two recent monographs in rather different fields. The first, Edward A. Fitzpatrick's *Great Books: Panacea or What?* (Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1952. $2.75) is, as the title indicates, intended to be a critical examination of the "Great Books" courses as a program of liberal education for adults. The present writer, who does not qualify as a proponent of the Great Books program in its present form (though he is something of an addict to the books involved and to their use in educational programs), finds the criticism disappointing. Some of it seems petty; some of it seems to miss the point; and many of the amendments and replacements offered, for example, the course in proverbs or in American sayings, seem considerably less than felicitous—in fact, hardly relevant. On the other hand, it is hard not to agree with many of Fitzpatrick's comments concerning the rate at which the books are covered, the weaknesses engendered by the teachers' lack of training, or the question whether this single general method of liberal study is the only one for every person. But the purpose of these paragraphs is not to review the book but to point the moral that the criticism seems most sound

when it is directed toward the rhetorical aspects of the Great Books program—that is, toward the possibly exaggerated claims as to what is actually accomplished or pretensions to the program's being the universal nostrum.

The second book is Harry R. Warfel's *Who Killed Grammar?* (University of Florida Press, 1952. $2.50). If one asks, "Who killed the teaching of English grammar in the public schools?" the answer given here is, "Professor C. C. Fries, of the University of Michigan, and some of his followers." Yet Warfel is careful to point out in his Preface and throughout the book that he is not feuding with Fries on all points. In fact, he considers him "fundamentally right in principle if not correct in all details." His charges of "non-science" and "non-sense" grow out of his belief that Fries and his followers sometimes go out of their sphere or beyond their data.

Both books, then, produce their greatest effect and serve their primary purpose when they attack the propaganda rather than the fundamental program of the two movements which they treat. And like these two monographs, an enormous amount of educational writing consists in propaganda and counterpropaganda. Education as a practical activity does require that people be persuaded. Pupils, parents, principals, superintendents, boards, presidents, and the rest must be convinced of the goodness of aims, of methods, and of materials. True, the rise of "the scientific study of education" was based on the hope that educational issues would be settled scientifically. But education involves many matters and touches on many areas of human life where scientific treatment is not now possible—whether it can or should ever become so. But even where something which might pass for scientific evidence is available, it seems to be a sad fact that rational demonstration alone does not come home to men's hearts and bosoms sufficiently to move them to action. Something more is needed; and here propaganda, rhetoric, and all the arts of persuasion enter the scene. The man who has developed what he considers a good educational mousetrap feels that he cannot sit at home, waiting for the world to beat a path to his door. He is under some compulsion to buy a big bass drum and hire a few dancing girls. And since the educational midway is thronged with other barkers with their medicine shows, he is always under pressure to improve his own "spiel" by making still more extravagant claims for his product.

A number of dangers grow out of this situation. For one thing, there is always the possibility that the alleged "cure-all" is only colored alcohol. Despite our much-vaunted suspicion of "taking things on the basis of authority," it is undubitably true that modern man cannot scientifically investigate everything in his life. Nor can the modern educator investigate,

in any strict sense of that term, everything that is offered for his adoption. When experts differ and schools of thought clash, as they usually do, it is easy for our evaluation of contending authorities to be based much more on their persuasiveness than on their soundness. But perhaps this danger is not too great in education.

Another danger grows out of the concern with rhetoric or propaganda in itself. Most educational movements which have achieved popularity have been so busy extending themselves oratorically that they constitute tempting targets for the pinpricks of logic, evidence, or even common sense. And it is right that the pedagogical flatulence be reduced, lest rhetoric, unchallenged, attain the effectiveness of the great lie. Nonetheless, there is a danger. To put the case in an inelegant metaphor, there is always the risk that, once we have demonstrated that the claims of the toothpaste manufacturers are exaggerated, we will decide to stop cleaning our teeth.

The present writer agrees with both Fitzpatrick and Warfel that the claims of the two movements they attack are exaggerated. But he would regard it as most unfortunate if certain fundamental values both in the Great Books and in the linguistic analysis of English were lost merely because the proponents of both get carried away with themselves. The problem of the modern educator is to get behind the tumult and the shouting, whether pro or con, and to examine proposals on their own merits.

The Stranger within and without Our Gates

American education became internationalized at the end of World War II. We undertook to assist both enemies and allies in the rehabilitation and reorganization of their educational programs and various other cultural activities. These attempts involved not only sending educational and cultural missions abroad but also the receiving of a veritable flood of foreign visitors to our own shores. Thousands of American schools, colleges, and universities have been visited, and, in each, many teachers and administrators have played host.

Many of us have had mixed feelings about both these enterprises. As for the foreign visitors, we were happy to help them see American life and American education at first hand and were flattered to show our institutions and programs and to discuss our personal teaching and research. We welcomed the opportunity to extend our vision and our knowledge beyond the ivory tower or salt mine of our classroom and office. We felt we could profit from the comments of those who saw things from a different point of view and who were less likely to accept something merely because we in America had always done it that way.

We thought the visitors also had a chance to learn. They could see an educational program at all levels from

kindergarten to adult education—a program varied by the practices of forty-eight states, many religious denominations, and numerous private organizations and institutions. Here was the varied educational system of a wealthy nation, which was physically unscarred by war. And we Americans, whatever our other faults, are usually hospitable to strangers and glad to share our professional secrets with anyone prepared to listen. Certainly the situation seemed to promise mutual benefit.

But there is the other side to the coin. The writer cannot speak for the foreigners' side of the matter. Undoubtedly they too have their complaints. But there does seem some consensus among those of us who have had a share in entertaining these visitors that much of the time was wasted —unnecessarily. A large investment of time was inevitable, but numerous visitors came to learn about programs about which they had heard vaguely but about which they had attempted to learn nothing before their arrival on the spot. There were those who came to one place, having confused it with another. In all these and similar instances, a little more preparation would have enabled the visitor to ask intelligent rather than foolish questions and to get more from a visit than the bare minimum of information. Then there were those who, because of linguistic and cultural differences, sometimes got the wildest misconceptions about our work and who assiduously copied this misinformation into the ever present notebook. Unless much of this record is providentially lost, generations of foreign students will be given some very odd descriptions of what goes on here. Then there were those foreigners who were scheduled to be in town for three days and were supposed to improve their time visiting something or talking to somebody, and that something or somebody proved to be our school and us—though neither we nor our visitors were sure why. At the end of a few days of such futility, many of us were inclined to take a line from Robert Frost's poem "Mending Wall" and assert peevishly, "Good fences make good neighbors," and to suggest that everyone should stay home for a few years.

This reaction was not intended to be taken completely seriously even in the case of the most testy of us. Both we and the visitors gained from the interchange. But there has been an enormous waste of human effort on both sides (to say nothing of other cost)—a waste which a little more careful processing and preparation of the visitors would have greatly reduced. Because of the size of the operation, such processing is itself difficult, time-consuming, and costly, but it does seem that more expenditure at that point would save far more time, money, and energy in the long run.

Our efforts abroad also seem to be subject to improvement, if we can judge by what we hear from time to

time. A disquieting note is struck by G. Robert Koopman, of the Michigan Department of Public Instruction, upon returning from his post as chief cultural officer on the staff of the U.S. High Commissioner for Germany. In Koopman's analysis of the present situation of our cultural program in Germany, perhaps the most interesting of his suggestions are those for constructive action, with indications of the points at which the present situation distresses him:

> In order that we may not get lost in any useless and destructive activities, I think we should adhere closely to the following three objectives:
>
> 1. We should seek to encourage the gradual development and installation of international cultural relations which will be democratic, sincere, overt, co-planned with the cultural agencies and completely independent of information, propaganda, and psychological warfare programs.
>
> 2. We should seek to bring about a new State Department personnel policy based upon the utilization of the great state and private facilities of higher education.
>
> 3. We should encourage the unofficial cultural agencies, institutions, and associations in the United States each to develop an appropriate program of cultural relations with foreign peoples and with foreign counterpart institutions. This should be completely free of governmental pressure and direction and should deal with exchange of persons, co-operative investigations, international meetings, exchange of artistic programs in the form of drama, recordings, films, etc., exchange of literature, the translation of literature, and the exchange of information.
>
> Unless citizens of the United States become concerned about the problem, the present overemphasis on political, military and economic programs, the present inefficient administration, and the extreme tension which characterize world affairs will almost certainly conspire to bring about a third World War more disastrous than anything we can imagine.

These educational operations both at home and abroad are extensive and expensive. It is admittedly difficult in times of pressure and tension to make the actual realize the ideal. But this striving for an ideal is what education is. The international exchange of education and educators has enormous potential value. It would be sad if this undertaking resulted—as it sometimes appears to threaten to do—in something not merely far less than we had hoped but perhaps in something quite the opposite. It is hard for American teachers to be critical and vigilant in regard to so enormous a program involving the highest levels of diplomatic and military policy and power. But we must do what we can.

What Does General Education Do to Students?

Teachers and administrators at all educational levels will be interested in a study which Muskingum College has made of the effect of its program of general education. The results obtained and the problems raised are so typical of all education that the report should not be overlooked by those not primarily interested in general education at the college level. The following quotations

are taken from "General Education at Muskingum College" by Robert N. Montgomery and Darrell Holmes (*Educational Research Bulletin*, XXXI [September 17, 1952], 141–50).

The general purpose of this study is to determine in so far as educational tests can provide valid data, the total impact which the general-education program has upon Freshman students. In essence this means evaluating the extent to which students gain proficiency in using skills in solving problems which they are encountering, and probably will encounter. Ideally, the total program should be appraised in terms of how well each of the stated objectives in general education is being accomplished. In the interest of providing a convenient means of organizing the data and findings of this research, the objectives have been re-worked, their essential characteristics being kept in mind. Four fundamental questions have been formulated which are basic to the appraisal of the Freshman general-education program:

1. Are all students learning subject matter—facts and principles—in communication, social studies, and science?
2. Are all students learning to think better as a result of taking social studies, and as a result of the Freshman program in general?
3. Are certain attitudes, values, and beliefs of the students being modified in a desirable direction?
4. Are all students gaining cultural advantages through attending concerts and lectures, reading, and similar experiences?

The writers know that answering these questions does not adequately indicate how well students are learning that subject matter which is pertinent only to the area being studied, the extent to which students are learning to apply subject matter to everyday problems, the extent to which the program is meeting students' needs, and the sort of emotional and social adjustment students are making. However, the questions are concerned with fundamental criticisms which have been made of the general-education program, and they do provide one with perspective in making the total appraisal. As such they are worthy of careful consideration. . . .

The students' records in the subject-matter areas of communication, science, and social studies . . . show that students made marked gains in subject matter learned during the course of the year. Moreover, gains in subject matter are made irrespective of students' initial knowledge of the subject; and gains are made irrespective of the academic aptitude of students. That is, students who ranked low in initial knowledge or in academic aptitude gained about as much as did students who ranked high. The average score of the Muskingum Freshmen compares very favorably with national norms on each of the tests administered. Insofar as can be determined, college experiences make a significant contribution to student improvement. This is definitely so in the case of science where an adequate control group was present. It is probably also true in the cases of communication and social studies, but adequate control groups were not available.

The weight of available evidence . . . strongly suggests that social studies do help a student to perform better such tasks as detecting assumptions in a statement or argument, identifying central issues in a problem, evaluating evidence or authoritative assertions, and drawing warranted conclusions from materials which are typical of the social studies. Differences obtained between mean gains of the samples from each of three classes and from one sample of students not taking social studies are not quite statistically reliable. The gain . . . for the test of critical thinking reveals that students do improve in their general skill in thinking during the course of the year. Without adequate control groups, it is impossible to

determine the extent to which the gain in thinking skills is due to attending Muskingum or to maturation. The following is true with regard to thinking gains made in social studies and the college program in general: a student's initial ability did not limit the amount of gain, evidently, as students with low initial scores show gains about equal to those of students with high initial scores. Nor did academic aptitude affect the amount of gain to any appreciable degree. Students with low academic aptitude gained about as much as students with high. Wide individual differences in thinking, however, are evident within the Freshman class. Students with higher academic aptitude show more skill in thinking than do students with low academic aptitude.

On the average, students are having their values and beliefs changed. The extent of change is not marked, but it is reliable. During the course of the year students seem to come into a better understanding as to how problems in human relations can be solved with due regard for the personality of others. No evidence is available, however, to determine whether students actually practice what they learn in this connection. Judging from the gain of 2.0 on the Inventory of Beliefs, . . . students' beliefs or assumptions as to the nature of ideas, institutions, others, and themselves tend to become more sound during the course of the year. Regardless of initial beliefs or of academic aptitude, students showed gains during the course of the year. As in the case of previous findings, wide individual differences exist among students as to what they believe about any given idea. . . .

The general purpose of the total Freshman program . . . is to help students cope with problems of significance to them, and to do this on a level which is higher than that used by the average non-college person. The evidence of this research suggests how well this is being done. . . .

At the very crux of the thinking process are the fundamental beliefs or assumptions which a person has relative to the nature of the elements of the problem about which he is thinking. These assumptions are frequently emotional in nature and may belong to the student because of the culture from which he comes, and not necessarily because of the essential soundness of the assumptions. The assumptions which a student makes about the elements of a given problem predetermine the solution which he is going to reach. . . .

That students do have a number of misconceptions about the nature of ideas, institutions, and people is clearly indicated by the results of the administration of the Inventory of Beliefs. The fact that students showed improvement during the course of the year is reassuring. But how much improvement?

The improvement in the validity of students' beliefs according to the rule-of-thumb technique used to interpret the data is approximately one-fourth that made in subject matter, and one-half that made in thinking skills. One reasonably wonders how much improvement can be expected; no data are available on this point. Undoubtedly, beliefs, opinions, and assumptions are changed with varying degrees of difficulty, depending on a variety of factors. However difficult may be the task of effecting changes in invalid beliefs, the writers contend that its accomplishment is essential to the material improvement in quality of thinking done by our students. This interpretation of the data suggests that Muskingum should attempt to do a better job of preparing the students to think about social problems.

The writers venture the opinion that this conclusion is not peculiar to Muskingum College. It is their belief that unless concerted action is taken to make students increasingly aware of the significance of the process of critical thinking, and to encourage students to improve the adequacy of their

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thinking through testing their beliefs, colleges may be in the unenviable position of providing students with the data and the reasoning skill with which to defend their initial ignorance.

Social Welfare Information for Teachers

THE TEACHER in the American public school, because of what W. W. Charters once called "the residual function" of the school, has become used to assuming more and more responsibilities for students. Functions once performed by the home, the community environment, the church, and other agencies and institutions have more and more been thrust upon the school. The harried teacher must occasionally feel that no one else is doing anything for children. But this desperate thought is not quite true. Other agencies are operating, and the teacher should be able to co-operate with them and know how they can co-operate with the teacher.

Dorothy Zietz's *Social Welfare Information for Teachers* (East Lansing, Michigan: Campus Book Store, Michigan State College, 1952. $1.00) is a recent little book designed to orient the teacher to social agencies. The scope of the book is best indicated by listing its Table of Contents:

I. Child Welfare: Its History in America
II. The Child and His Family in Public Welfare
III. Private Agencies Serving the Child and His Family
IV. The Fields of Social Work
V. Parent-Child Relationships
VI. The School as a Detection Center
VII. The Teacher and the Social Worker
VIII. Case Work for Children in Their Own Homes
IX. Foster Care
X. Adoption
XI. Child-Guidance Clinics and Mental Hygiene
XII. The Juvenile Court
XIII. Leisure-Time Programs
XIV. The Children's Charter

Chapters vi, vii, xi, xii, and xiii will possibly strike teachers as those giving information most likely to have immediate practical utility in their work, but knowledge of other aspects of the program will also be useful. The teacher in an urban community is likely to enjoy more of these resources than does the rural teacher. But as state and national agencies extend their services geographically in an effort to reach all citizens, the teacher who assumes that no such resources are available in his locality may be unwittingly depriving himself of help which is actually at hand.

The Core of the Core

ADMINISTRATORS and teachers interested in the core curriculum or interested in learning something about it will find very useful Grace S. Wright's *Core Curriculum Development: Problems and Practices* (Bulletin 1952, No. 5, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, $0.30). The Foreword by Wayne O. Reed, assistant commissioner, Division of State and Local School Systems, is a succinct statement of the purpose and scope of the volume:

"To provide all youth a common body of experience organized around personal and

social problems"; "to give boys and girls successful experiences in solving the problems which are real to them here and now, thus preparing them to solve future problems"; "to give youth experiences which will lead them to become better citizens in a democracy"; "to increase the holding power of the secondary school by providing a program that has meaning for all"—these are some of the reasons for a core curriculum.

Although these purposes are not served exclusively by a core program, such a program serves these purposes uniquely well. The organizational structure of core, which gives to one teacher the same group of pupils for two or more periods daily, presumably places the teacher in an effective position for discovering the immediate concerns of individuals and groups, for sensing real problems, and for providing the kind of help that is needed. Also, the longer period allows for continuity of interest, for greater relationship between subjects, and for a variety of types of experiences not possible in the usual forty-five-minute period.

Inevitably the core curriculum has met some opposition. Its purposes are not always made clear. There is sometimes a mistaken tendency to look upon it as an end rather than a means. If its purposes are understood, there may be doubt that it can accomplish those purposes. Problems beset it all along the way. Quite often the program in a school does not develop beyond the modification of the organizational structure of the curriculum; at other times it will progress until significant changes in content and method have been achieved.

Insofar as it is concerned with the status of the core curriculum this bulletin supplements Office of Education Bulletin 1950, No. 5. Its purposes, however, are twofold: (1) to describe more fully the nature of the programs which have the organizational structure of core; and (2) to point to the problems which perplex administrators wishing to initiate or to extend the development of the core curriculum, and through illustrations of practice in schools which are moving forward with the program, to suggest ways of overcoming these problems.

Written primarily to be of help to high-school principals and teachers, this bulletin also has possibilities for use with laymen who are interested in finding out about core. Through its generous documentation of the literature covering programs in operation, it should prove helpful to research workers.

HAROLD B. DUNKEL

Who's Who for January

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by Harold B. Dunkel, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago. Arthur E. Traxler, executive director of the Educational Records Bureau of New York City, surveys the field of remedial reading, noting new developments and trends and needs that have not been met, and suggests ways of meeting these needs. Charles E. Irvin, assistant professor of communication skills at Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan, writes of the program at his school which attempted, by means of a carefully controlled study, to determine whether specific training would improve students' skill in listening. Dora A. Ames, guidance director of the Toms River, New Jersey, schools, demonstrates how a community occupational survey conducted by the schools' guidance department not only gathered useful information but fostered good relations between the schools and various groups in the community. John E. Sands, educational specialist at Moody Air Force Base, Valdosta, Georgia, and formerly director of student teaching at Arkansas State Teachers College, presents the results of a study in which he analyzed the education, experience, and responsibilities of directors of student teaching and co-operating supervising teachers in 112 teacher-training institutions. Blanche Camden, teacher of remedial English at the Leyden Community High School, Franklin Park, Illinois, tells how the elementary school from which an entering high-school student comes may help the student and his new teachers become acquainted by providing cumulative records, recorded interviews with his former teachers, and achievement-test results. Walter J. Moore, director of the Laboratory School of the College of Education of the University of Illinois, presents a list of selected references on secondary-school instruction.

Reviewers of books William H. Burton, director of apprenticeship, Harvard University Graduate School of Education. Herbert S. Zim, associate professor of education, University of Illinois. Franklin Bobbitt, professor emeritus of education; University of Chicago. Martin B. Loeb, director of the Community Research Center and of appointments in the Committee on Human Development and Department of Sociology. Kenneth V. Lottick, associate professor of education, Willamette University, Salem, Oregon.

REMEDIAL READING TODAY[1]

ARTHUR E. TRAXLER
New York City

*

AN OBJECTIVE IMPRESSION of remedial reading today, as I see it, will be presented in this article, although in some instances I may go beyond my data and express a wishful hope. In preparing this article, I studied materials on recent research in reading, abstracted by the Educational Records Bureau, and the responses to a recent questionnaire, distributed by the National Association of Remedial Teachers.

CONCEPTUAL CONSIDERATIONS

At the outset, let us note certain developing conceptual considerations concerning the child and his reading.

Consideration of the whole child.—The first of these is the present tendency, with its roots in the holoism of modern educational psychology and guidance theory, to view the child as a unitary human being and to view education as concerned with all aspects of the whole individual. I do not believe that many teachers ever "fractionated" the child in their teaching to the extent that some critics say they did, but there was formerly a tendency to deal in limited fashion with the matter at hand, instruction in reading or in other fields, and to overlook outside influences. Teachers in all fields, and particularly teachers of reading, now show a greater awareness that the whole life-experience of the child, including elements remote in space and time from the reading situation, come together and impinge on the reading process. This tendency is evident in recent reading research, which is no longer narrowly confined to the reading act alone. Home and social influences and factors in the entire environment of the individual are studied, for it is realized that these may be causal in reading difficulty. In our modern schools, reading specialists and guidance specialists inevitably join forces, exchange information, and assist each other in furthering the development of the individual pupil.

Consideration of reading as part of total educative process.—Closely related to the concept of the child as a unitary being is the concept of reading as a central aspect of the total educative process. This concept has long been *implicit* in our schools, but in recent years it has become more *ex-*

[1] This article is based on a talk given on May 3, 1952, at the Third Annual Conference on Remedial Reading held under the auspices of the Testing and Advisement Center, Brooklyn College, Brooklyn, New York.

plicit. Notwithstanding the rapid rise and virtually universal use of other avenues of communication, such as the radio, the motion picture, and television, reading continues to be the principal medium of instruction in our schools. The wide recognition of the pervading role of reading in American education is a foundation stone on which remedial reading of a clinical nature rests. Recognition of this role also lends strong support to programs of group corrective reading, as well as the movement toward developmental reading.

Opposed views of the reading process.—A third factor in the developing conceptual structure may be likened to two sides of a coin. On one side is the view of reading as an exceedingly complex process—a process so intricate and so closely tied to the whole verbal equipment of the individual that the reading act challenges the best scientific procedures that psychology and education can evolve. On the other side is the view of reading as an understandable process, susceptible to scientific analysis and attack. Fifteen years ago there was a noticeable tendency to surround remedial reading with an aura of mystery—to cloak it in technical jargon and to adorn it with gadgets. In recent years our terminology has undergone much pruning, and our ideas have been restated in practical, functional terms so that the clinical expert and the teacher can now converse with one another. The paraphernalia and procedures that have endured have been subjected to a good deal of research. All this is salutary.

Recognition of relation between reading and personal factors.—A fourth concept characteristic of remedial reading today is a much more extensive recognition of a relationship between reading difficulty and emotional difficulty. The expansion of this recognition is one of the most pronounced trends in present-day thinking about remedial problems. The rise of projective techniques and of nondirective therapy has helped to bring forcibly to the attention of school personnel the importance of personal and emotional adjustment in all learning. Teachers of reading are showing an increasing awareness of the fact that a reading difficulty may not be specific to the reading situation but may be symptomatic of a deep-seated emotional disturbance. They realize, too, that, when reading retardation is a symptom, little can be accomplished by treating the symptom until the basic difficulty is alleviated.

The conviction concerning the relation between reading and adjustment is not confined to remedial work with children. As was stated in a recent report of clinical experience with reading problems at the adult level, "Adult reading patterns are more often than not intermingled with problems of life-adjustment."[2]

[2] Bernard Shore, "Reading Problems of Adults," *Remedial Reading Newsletter of the Brooklyn College Testing and Advisement Center*, II (April, 1952), 4.

This growing appreciation of emotional and personality factors in reading difficulty is evidence of a degree of sophistication that until the last few years was characteristic of comparatively few persons in the reading field. This recognition gives remedial work in reading a vitality it could never possess if it concentrated attention exclusively upon the mechanics of the reading process.

At the same time, reading teachers ought to remember that not all reading problems have emotional origins. In most cases of severe reading disability, emotional maladjustment is involved, but emotional factors are not always causal. Emotional maladjustment may result from reading retardation. A good deal of the recent reading research has been directed toward attempts to unravel cause and effect in persons with specific reading difficulties who also show severe emotional involvement.

ORGANIZATIONAL PROCEDURES FOR INSTRUCTION IN READING

It is generally agreed by those concerned with reading that three kinds of organization are needed to meet reading needs throughout the elementary- and secondary-school grades: developmental reading for all pupils; corrective reading for those pupils whose reading difficulties are comparatively mild and are apparently uncomplicated by emotional problems; and remedial reading for those pupils with severe reading difficulty. Current practice in many schools tends to bear out this opinion. In response to a questionnaire which the National Association for Remedial Teaching submitted to its membership in the spring of 1951, approximately two-thirds of the public schools represented in the study stated that they attempted to improve the reading of all pupils through regular classroom procedures; three-fourths of these schools indicated that they had a corrective reading program; and three-fourths stated that they carried on remedial-reading instruction.[3] The fact that the number of schools providing programs of remedial or corrective reading is larger than the number with developmental reading programs probably reflects the recency of the concept and practice of planned developmental reading procedures above the elementary-school level.

Developmental reading program.— The details of the organization of the developmental reading program, of course, differ from school to school, but the majority have several features in common. There is a growing tendency to regard reading as an all-school problem for which it is necessary to obtain the co-operation of all faculty members. In a large number of schools the words "every teacher a teacher of reading" are no longer an empty slogan or an unrealistic dream. At the

[3] Arthur E. Traxler, "Current Organization and Procedures in Remedial Teaching," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XX (March, 1952), 305–12.

same time, it must be recognized that there are still many schools in which most of the faculty members are not interested in the reading ability of their pupils. Furthermore, it continues to be difficult to persuade classroom teachers that improved reading achievement will not only benefit the individual pupil but will also lighten the burden of teaching and enable the teacher to do more effective work—something which should be obvious.

Corrective reading program.—While a program of reading improvement in a school should make extensive use of the regular classroom teachers (and there is an unmistakable trend toward obtaining the active support of *all* teachers for the reading program), the success of the work calls for the leadership of one or more trained persons. It is encouraging to find that nearly two-thirds of the schools and one-half of the colleges responding to the NART questionnaire have one or more full-time remedial teachers. In addition, one-third of the public schools and two thirds of the colleges have teachers assigned to part-time remedial instruction. Because of the selected character of the institutions represented in the NART, the proportion of these schools with some remedial instruction is probably greater than the per cent of the schools of the country as a whole. But only a short time ago, even the schools in the NART had few teachers especially trained for remedial work. About 60 per cent of these institutions began their remedial programs in 1940 or later.

Remedial-reading program.—An additional factor in the organization of current reading programs is the realization that a relatively small but important proportion of the school population cannot find release from their reading disabilities without clinical attention. Thus, thorough remedial services tend to include either the development of clinical services within an institution or the utilization of such services from without. As evidenced by the replies to the NART questionnaire and by other studies, clinical services are becoming more widely available than they were even a few years ago. Clinicians and classroom teachers of reading are developing closer understanding and are showing a greater tendency to co-operate fully than they did in former years. It is apparently being realized to an increasing extent that seldom can one specialist, however able, thoroughly understand a complicated learning or emotional problem. In most instances, thorough diagnosis becomes possible only when specialists and practitioners pool their knowledge, understanding, and peculiar techniques.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

Several current trends in instructional procedures in remedial and corrective reading may be discerned.

Integration of reading into regular school program.—The first of these is integration of the reading program into the regular school day of the secondary school. Schools that depend largely upon free periods and after-

school hours for reading instruction are now decidedly in the minority. In a recent survey of remedial reading in secondary schools, Brink and Witty found that, in all but twenty-seven of 109 schools, reading classes met regularly five days a week and that, in approximately three-fourths of these school systems, pupils were given credit for the remedial-reading course equal to that which they would receive in any regular course.[4]

Emphasis on understanding of individual.—A second trend is toward greater emphasis upon diagnosis and understanding of the individual before undertaking to instruct him in reading. The use of reading tests as a starting point in diagnosis is now almost universal, and many other techniques, such as intelligence tests, ratings of pupils, and inventories of their interests, are used almost as frequently. Likewise, techniques of personality appraisal in cases of involved difficulties are coming into wide use. More attention is apparently being given now than formerly to the individualization of corrective instruction to take account of specific needs as indicated by detailed diagnosis.

Eliminating pressure.—At all school levels, and particularly in remedial work with younger children, there is a tendency to eliminate stress and pressure and to carry on remedial activities in a friendly, relaxed atmosphere. To this end, considerable attention is likely to be given to the physical setup of the remedial room, including such items as the use of harmonious colors and comfortable furniture and an informal arrangement of tables and chairs.

Aspects emphasized in instruction.—In those aspects of remedial work that involve direct concentration upon the reading process, the present tendency is to stress comprehension and word attack rather than to emphasize the mechanics of the process, as was so often true earlier.

Use of wide range of materials.—An important aid to instruction in current remedial programs is the availability of a wide range of reading materials prepared especially for use in such programs. Nearly all these materials have been published within the last ten or fifteen years, and some of the best have been issued very recently. It is no longer necessary for remedial teachers to spend several hours each day in locating and preparing reading materials appropriate for work on a particular reading skill at the next class meeting. However, it should be pointed out that we continue to need more materials that have been scientifically prepared and evaluated so that they will have high interest value for comparatively mature pupils and, at the same time, be on a low difficulty level. There is also a need for greater variety in the reading difficulty of content-subject textbooks designed for classroom use.

Attention given to all pupils.—In

[4] William G. Brink and Paul A. Witty, "Current Practices in Remedial Reading in Secondary Schools," *School Review*, LVII (May–June, 1949), 260–66.

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many schools, reading instruction is no longer confined to pupils who are low in reading ability as compared with grade norms. To an increasing extent, schools are recognizing that many able pupils need stimulation and guidance in bringing their reading level up to capacity. It is encouraging, and indeed surprising, that approximately half of the four hundred schools included in a recent survey of reading instruction in public schools stated that they give as much attention to bright students as they do to average or slow students.[5]

QUESTIONS THAT CONTINUE TO BE CONTROVERSIAL

In a field as complex as reading, inevitably some sharp differences of opinion have arisen concerning the origin of reading difficulties and the procedures to be used in their treatment. However, different reading specialists do not seem to be as far apart on some of these questions today as they formerly were. In general, there seems to be greater tolerance of the viewpoints of other specialists—a tolerance which is one of the distinguishing characteristics of professional maturity. Nevertheless, it is not to be inferred that all points of difference have disappeared.

Effect of cerebral dominance.—Among the controversial issues related to reading, two especially continue to be undecided so far as research evidence is concerned. One of these issues has to do with strephosymbolia (the perceiving of objects reversed) and the influence of handedness, eyedness, and mixed dominance (of the cerebral hemisphere) upon reading ability. The findings of different studies of this problem are not in agreement. Some studies reveal little or no relationship, while others seem to show much greater incidence of left-dominant and intergraded individuals among poor readers than among good readers even when the poor and good readers are matched according to mental ability. The greater weight of published evidence seems to be on the side of regarding lack of cerebral dominance as important in only a small proportion of remedial cases, but no definite conclusion can be drawn until more comprehensive research data are available.

Use of mechanical equipment.—The other noteworthy controversial matter concerns the use of mechanical equipment in reading instruction. Some reading specialists continue to be strong advocates of the use of the metronoscope, films, and filmstrips, and such recent devices as the Reading Accelerator, while other specialists are vigorously opposed to the use of devices of these kinds. There seems to be no real doubt concerning the value of mechanical devices, such as the ophthalmograph, for *diagnostic* purposes, but recent research, like earlier research, fails to clarify the issue in regard to the use of machines for *instructional* purposes. While mechanical equipment apparently can be used to advantage with some pupils and by

[5] Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests, Inc., "Reading Instruction in the Public Schools." (419 West 119th Street), New York 27: The Committee, 1951.

some remedial teachers, there is, as yet, no clear-cut evidence that mechanical devices are essential in reading instruction or that, in general, they bring about greater gains than can be achieved through good teaching based on freer methods. Opinion on this issue is frequently tinged with strong emotion, and this fact makes it difficult to obtain thoroughly objective appraisals of mechanical devices.

CURRENT NEEDS IN REMEDIAL READING

What are the outstanding needs in the field of remedial reading if we are to make progress beyond the stage reached today? As I see them, there are two great needs.

Research on basic questions.—One of these is well-planned, large-scale research into some of the big, basic, theoretical questions, such as the influence of emotional, physiological, and neurological factors, and into some of the intensely practical questions, such as the influence of remedial work on reading ability after a lapse of time, the influence on school work, and, particularly, the influence on vocational success. We have a new and rapidly growing need for research on the benefits of remedial reading for high-level employees in business and industrial organizations—an area in which we now have little objective information.

During the last thirty-five years there has been more research on reading than on any other school subject, but much of this is not careful research. Teachers of reading are, of course, highly literate, and they readily break into print with reports of their own experiments that are often faulty in design and naïve statistically. Notwithstanding these limitations, such reports are helpful to other teachers, and they should not be discouraged. In addition, however, we need studies planned and carried out on a scale far beyond the resources of any one individual.

In spite of the many titles of studies in reading that may be cited, our research thus far is so ineffectual that we cannot readily refute the position of certain authorities on child psychology who stoutly maintain that remedial work is seldom of any value and that most of the results it is able to accomplish would eventually be brought about by the natural maturation process of the child and with less emotional stress. Such a position is, of course, not in agreement with the general observation of those who work in the remedial field, but it is difficult for remedial workers to cite convincing research to support their view.

An important reason why much of our research on reading is inconclusive is that too often we have been content to stop when we have reported noteworthy gains obtained during the period of remedial instruction and have failed to follow up the individuals to determine the pattern of their reading growth during the following one, two, or three years. As William S. Gray stated in a recent article, "every school should engage continuously in evaluating the results obtained and in

making needed adjustments in reading programs and teaching procedures to insure needed improvement in all areas and among all pupils."[6]

We need, I believe, one strong, vital organization that is influential enough to obtain substantial financial support for the comprehensive, long-term study of some of these problems. I feel that the National Association for Remedial Teaching and the International Council for the Improvement of Reading Instruction might be in a better position to obtain the kind of aid that is needed if they would get together and pool their resources.

Trained personnel.—The other great need at present is trained personnel—persons with high aptitude for teaching and guidance who will get the necessary training and devote the rest of their lives to the remedial-teaching field.

Twenty-five or thirty years have passed since the first well-designed and thorough experiments in the improvement of reading ability of secondary-school and college students were carried on. It is a matter of observation that it requires about a generation for an idea introduced on an experimental basis to affect general practice in the schools. Thus, within the last few years we have seen what amounts virtually to an explosion of interest in reading at all school levels. This natural trend has recently been given impetus by nation-wide attacks upon schools for allegedly poor teaching of the basic skills.

The rapid multiplication of reading programs resulting from these forces has not only absorbed reading teachers as rapidly as they could be trained but has inevitably led to the use of many teachers inadequately trained for the task. Equipment, reading materials, methods, administrative support—these are important considerations, but they are secondary to the need for *personnel*. There simply are not enough able remedial teachers to go around.

In-service training of teachers through short, intensive, on-the-job courses is greatly needed and should be encouraged, but this is not enough. Recruitment of sufficient numbers of promising young persons for thorough training in this field is, I believe, our most immediate and urgent problem. Future progress in remedial work is likely to be determined in considerable measure by our success in meeting this problem.

[6] William S. Gray, "Promoting Development in Reading among All Pupils," *Education in a Period of National Preparedness*, p. 114. American Council on Education Studies, Vol. XVI. Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 53. Washington: American Council on Education, 1952.

EVALUATING A TRAINING PROGRAM IN LISTENING FOR COLLEGE FRESHMEN

CHARLES E. IRVIN
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LISTEN, MY CHILDREN, and you shall hear, of the midnight ride of Paul Revere." The important thing about these lines of a famous old poem lies not in the historical reference but in the promise that something will accrue from listening. White crossbars that mark the intersection of highway and railroad bear the words "Stop, Look, and Listen." Teachers in the primary grades clap their hands and admonish children to listen. Professors expect students to take notes on college lectures. No matter where the observer turns—to classroom, business office, living room, United Nations Assembly, steel-strike meeting, or Korean truce meeting—he comes to the inescapable conclusions that listening is an important phase of our living; listening results in the acquisition of information through the understanding of spoken symbols; listening is often followed by changes in human thinking and behavior.

However, it is a far cry from the admission that listening is important to an admission that listening can be, or even should be, taught in the schools. Questions such as these keep confronting us: How much do we listen? How well do we listen? Can listening be taught? Has listening been taught? What have been the results of such instruction? Can its inclusion in the curriculum be justified?

It is not the purpose of this article to answer all these questions in detail, but adequate documentary references will be suggested to readers who wish to investigate further. The amount of time spent in listening can vary from the 45 per cent of our daily lives, reported by Rankin (**9**: 417–20), to the 57.5 per cent of the school day, as discovered by Wilt (**10**). It is generally accepted by those in the field that the ability to listen varies among individuals and varies within the same individual during differing listening activities. It is also agreed that, when listening skill in individuals is tested for the comprehension of orally presented materials, efficiency ranges from a low of 25 per cent to a high of 60 per cent (**3, 4, 6, 7, 8**). There is no doubt that the present status of the skill merits attempts to improve it.

It is further generally conceded by those in the field of communications skills that listening can be taught (**3**); in fact, a number of educational insti-

tutions are teaching it.[1] At present there seem to be three major methods of approaching such instruction:

1. By a clinical procedure in which remedial classes are conducted after sufficient diagnostic testing has been administered.
2. By co-ordinating listening assignments with speaking assignments in speech classes.
3. By direct instruction either prior to, or integrated with, class lectures.

The relative merits of these methods can be judged by the results achieved when measuring devices have been applied to students' listening skill.

THE DIRECT INSTRUCTION METHOD

For over eight years Michigan State College has offered a course in the four communication skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. The weakest link in this chain has always been listening. Originally, the course was set up with four hours of class time devoted to reading, writing, and speaking, plus a one-hour lecture period during which students would be given lectures on language and its use. This one-hour lecture period had always been considered a sort of "listening laboratory."

However, as research in listening progressed among certain institutions of higher learning, it soon became apparent that the communications-skills listening laboratory at Michigan State College offered little more than practice in listening. Mere practice could hardly be considered training in this all-important skill. Consequently, a departmental committee was appointed and charged with the responsibility of developing a program of instruction.

The character of the existing listening-practice period determined the direction of the committee's research. It was decided to utilize direct instruction in which the use of actual listening-training materials would be integrated with the then existing informational lectures to which students listened. Several short pilot studies were run: one to determine the status of the listening skill among our students; another to give some units of instruction a "trial run." The results of the diagnostic study showed that only about 27 per cent of our students tested could identify the main points of a well-organized informational lecture and that these students were less than 60 per cent accurate when asked to draw inferences from materials presented orally. When the trial run was made, the training materials were directed toward these two obvious listening weaknesses among our Freshman students.

In the spring of 1951 we had collected sufficient data to plan a full-scale training program to begin in the fall quarter of the next regular academic year and extend throughout the winter and spring quarters. The range of the reception given the idea by the staff and by others concerned was from lukewarm to enthusiastic. One

[1] Among these are the University of Minnesota, Stephens College (Missouri), Air University (Maxwell Field, Alabama), and Michigan State College.

thing appeared certain, however: the efficacy of this training program would have to be determined. We were past the point where we could just "talk" listening. We needed proof that listening could be taught and that results of the instruction would be beneficial to the students.

THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

A variety of things depended on the success or failure of this projected program: a comprehensive philosophy of communication, a method of instruction, and an assumption that training in listening would result in improvement of listening skill. Consequently, three problems immediately emerged as most important: (1) the actual selection and arrangement of teachable materials; (2) the integration of these materials, by units, with the communication-skills course which is required of all Freshmen at Michigan State College; and (3) the evaluation of the instructional results.

Materials were selected and arranged by a committee of four members of the staff. In all, eighteen units of listening instruction, each ten minutes in length, were integrated with the one-hour lecture periods of the course. These lecture sections were eight in number, and each enrolled between two hundred and three hundred students.

To facilitate an evaluation of the results, the design of the study was kept simple. Four lecture sections, two meeting in the morning and two in the afternoon, were designated as the "experimental group" of students who would receive the listening instruction. The units of instruction were given as follows: seven in the fall quarter, six in the winter quarter, and five in the spring quarter. The other four lecture sections, also evenly distributed between morning and afternoon periods, were designated as the "control group" of students who would be assigned only the regular work of the course.

Both groups were tested prior to the initiation of the first training period and after each quarter's training period. The entire study was tightly controlled to eliminate or to minimize the many variables operative in the listening activity. In addition to the one variable being tested—listening training—eight other major variables appeared likely to influence results:

1. The personality of the lecturer.
2. Inconsistent attendance at training sessions.
3. Variations in verbal intelligence among the students.
4. Variations in listening aptitude among the students.
5. Interest in the materials being presented.
6. Previous knowledge of the materials being presented.
7. The receptive mood of the students at the precise time of listening.
8. Intentional or unintentional motivation that might be provided by the test administrator.

The listening tests employed were those constructed by Ralph Nichols at the University of Minnesota (8). Two twelve-question tests, designed to measure comprehension, were used in

each testing period. Each of the tests covered a different subject area. The materials over which the tests were given consisted of recorded segments of lectures in the subject areas corresponding to each test.

It was hoped that the evaluation would reveal three things: (1) whether a difference would exist between groups after one group had received listening instruction; (2) whether a difference in listening skill existed between the sexes; (3) whether the time of day during which the students listened had any influence on their listening proficiency.

EVALUATION OF RESULTS

Two major statistical procedures were utilized to evaluate the results of the listening-training program. An analysis of variance was used to weigh the differences that might exist because of sex of the student tested and time of day when the listening occurred. An analysis of covariance was used to weigh and adjust the differences that might exist between groups because of pre-existing differences in listening aptitude. Many of the variables, not otherwise controlled in the design of the study, were thus minimized in effect. In addition, the extreme low and the extreme high scoring brackets were carefully examined for analysis of instructional results.

In the process of the study, the control and the experimental groups numbered about twelve hundred students each. However, for the evaluation of results, a random sampling of five hundred for each group was used as the test population.

As an outgrowth of this study, the following conclusions appear to be justified.

1. A sufficient number of the processes involved in listening can be positively influenced by teaching to result in improvement in listening comprehension.

2. The listening training given in the Michigan State College study can be credited with creating a highly significant difference between the experimental and the control groups. The difference in test-score results were significant at the 1 per cent level—a finding which means that a difference as large as that found would occur by random fluctuation less than one time in a hundred or that a non-chance factor, listening training in this instance, was operating to create this large difference.

3. Listening training can be credited with a very appreciable gain in listening skill among the below-average listeners. The tests given prior to the training were used to divide our students into below-average, average, and above-average listeners. Over 50 per cent of the below-average listeners, through training, lifted themselves out of that category into the upper levels.

4. The listening training given was apparently ineffective among the above-average listeners. The above-

average group which received training did not respond significantly to it and did relatively little better than the above-average group which did not receive any instruction.

5. Male students seemed to be significantly superior to female students in performance on the listening tests given in this study—the score differences were significant at the 1 per cent level.

6. The time of day at which students listen seems to have no significant influence upon their listening ability.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

In answer to the many questions posed earlier in this article, it can be accurately stated that listening can be taught, that it is being taught, and that its inclusion in any curriculum is justified. More materials are needed; different approaches in methodology are certainly in order; and better measuring devices are essential. However, listening training is no longer a novel and interesting idea but is rather an increasingly acceptable, necessary, and beneficial member of the communication-skills curriculum.

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A COMMUNITY OCCUPATIONAL SURVEY AS A PUBLIC RELATIONS INSTRUMENT

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*

A COMMUNITY SURVEY of occupations, directed by the guidance department of the Toms River schools, proved to be a method of fostering good relations between the school and the employers of the area, the graduates, the pupils, parents, and the community as a whole. That good relations already existed was apparent from the co-operation received from the groups in carrying through the survey.

DESCRIPTION OF THE COMMUNITY AND THE SCHOOL

Toms River, the county seat of Ocean County, is located in east central New Jersey. Poultry, eggs, and the summer-resort trade are important businesses in this area. Toms River is fifty-seven miles from Philadelphia and eighty miles from New York City. These factors are among those that are causing a rapid increase in population in this vicinity. The section surveyed has about 17,500 persons, or approximately 31 per cent of the total population of the county. The town of Toms River and the communities surrounding it whose pupils attend Toms River High School were included in the survey.

The high school has an average enrolment of 625. A federal- and state-aided vocational school is an integral part of the regular high school. Three vocational curriculums are offered: homemaking, automobile mechanics, and carpentry. In the last two areas the emphasis is upon diversified training. The other courses of study are college-preparatory, business, and fine arts. In May, 1950, when the survey was started, the distribution of students was as follows: college-preparatory, 42.2 per cent; business, 27.0 per cent; carpentry, 9.9 per cent; automobile mechanics, 9.2 per cent; homemaking, 5.8 per cent; fine arts, 1.2 per cent; mixed, 4.7 per cent.

PURPOSE OF THE SURVEY

The curriculums at Toms River High School were first established to meet the needs of the community as well as the goals of general education. Frequently improvements have been made to adjust to such needs, for example, by adding such subjects as consumer education, economic competence, family relationships, and social behavior. We at Toms River feel that periodically we should review the extent to which we are meeting needs.

Such evaluation was the main objective of the community occupational survey, begun in the spring of 1950.

The original purpose was to establish the need for revising the vocational curriculums. As plans progressed, however, it was apparent that appraisal in other fields would be valuable. Data upon which to base our evaluation were obtained from employers, pupils, parents, and graduates.

SURVEY OF EMPLOYERS

Several teachers and graduates assisted in compiling a list of employing establishments and prospective employers, by supplementing a list originally taken from the classified section of the telephone directory. Newspaper releases preceded the mailing of the questionnaires. In May, 1950, these forms, with accompanying letters, were sent to employers. We asked for data about the following items: types of full-time and part-time jobs, numbers of employees, serious weaknesses of beginning workers, skills and personal qualities important for beginning workers. In a follow-up during the next year we asked for personal interviews.

Thus, in February, 1951, personal contacts were made with employers. During the weeks preceding the interviews a series of events helped to inform the public of the purposes of the interviews and to pave the way for getting in contact with employers. Data from the forms returned in May, 1950, by employers, parents, pupils, and graduates, were interpreted in news stories and editorials and in talks before civic groups, such as the Lions, Kiwanis, and Rotary clubs, the Businessmen's Association, the Business and Professional Women's Club, and the Parent-Teacher Association.

These personal interviews were made, during the school day, by Seniors who had been instructed in advance. Students volunteered on the basis of individual interest. For example, commercial pupils interviewed employers of clerical workers, while boys intending to become automobile mechanics saw garage owners. Employers who desired contact by telephone were called. The students were enthusiastic about their experiences. Employers were very co-operative in giving information, and the school and the community learned that good public relations are fostered by sharing experiences. Of a total of 700 employers, contacts were made with 54.0 per cent.

Valuable data on the occupational pattern and employment opportunities in the community were assembled, but, more important, the school felt it had shown that it was ready to help employers and was attempting to meet local needs. The number of employers who called the school for placement increased. Employers also stated that they would be eager to receive information about students applying for work, to give the school follow-up data on students placed with them, and to talk with students or to arrange visits to places of work.

Survey information indicated that, although the school was meeting many employment needs, there was greater demand than the school supplied for

workers in clerical jobs, in carpentry and allied building trades, and in automobile mechanics. Also a need for training students for work in the sales field was indicated, as well as a need for training in some professional and semi-professional occupations. Results emphasized the need for greater stress upon competence in English and arithmetic and upon the personal qualities important in holding a job.

SURVEY OF STUDENTS AND PARENTS

The Toms River High School students not only contributed to the survey by making the personal and telephone contacts with employers, but they also participated by contributing their own suggestions and securing those of their parents. In May, 1950, when the questionnaires were mailed to employers and graduates, the students in Grades VII–XII of Toms River High School and its sending schools were given questionnaires. These forms were explained to the students, who were asked to fill them out, to take them home for parents to complete, and to return them.

Students and parents replied with care. Of 897 enrolled in Grades VII–XII, 757 pupils (84.4 per cent) returned the forms; 610 family groups out of the 686 represented in these grades (88.9 per cent) responded. The enthusiasm and interest displayed by such gratifying returns indicated good public relations from several viewpoints. Some of these are as follows: (1) It showed that both students and parents felt their suggestions were of real value to the school. (2) It showed the mutual interest of the school and the home. (3) It showed that the school was attempting to evaluate itself in terms of needs. (4) It showed some of the activities and purposes of the guidance department. (5) It enlarged the knowledge of the parents, and thus of the community, about the school and some of its major functions.

Questions asked of students and their parents include the following:

What school subjects are the most valuable?
What other subjects do you think the school should offer that it does not now offer?
What personality qualities do you think will be most important in holding a job?

Students were also asked to list their occupational choices and any part-time work experiences that they had had. Parents were asked to complete a section giving the occupations of employed members of the family.

Statistics obtained from the replies of parents and students proved useful in several ways. The occupational distribution of the employed members of family groups gave us another sampling of the employment pattern of the area, in addition to that revealed by the employers. Studies were made of the relations (1) between students' occupational choices and the numbers of workers employed in the various types of jobs in the area and (2) between students' choices of occupations and the per cents enrolled in the various high-school curriculums. The study of such relations determined the extent to which the high school was meeting community and pupil needs.

SURVEY OF GRADUATES

Another yardstick was the follow-up study of Toms River High School graduates in the classes of 1947, 1948, and 1949. Questionnaires were mailed to graduates, 39.6 per cent of whom responded. Although this was the smallest return, replies indicated that a step forward in public relations had been initiated. The school had demonstrated its responsibility for, and its interest in, its former students. Also, a definite need was shown for a more complete follow-up study of graduates and of nongraduates. Close relationship between the graduates' high-school courses and their occupations was determined for 67.7 per cent of those who replied.

GENERAL RESULTS

Graduates, employers, pupils, and parents were asked to list valuable high-school subjects and personal qualities essential in holding a job. English and mathematics were the two subjects leading the lists from all groups. All groups agreed that courtesy, honesty, and neatness were important occupational assets.

Some recommendations in the survey report have been implemented; others are being studied further. The general recommendation to form a curriculum committee for more study has been adopted. Also in process are attempts to build better English and arithmetic skills, to re-emphasize essential personal traits, and to continue the follow-up study of graduates and nongraduates. The principle of providing for a periodic continuation of the survey has been accepted. Still in need of further study are the advisability of adding courses in salesmanship, in getting and holding a job, and in other subjects not now offered.

THE SURVEY AS PUBLIC RELATIONS

It is well to remember that good public relations depend greatly upon gradual adoption of the recommendations made and upon well-planned interpretation of statistics and school services. Thus an occupational survey cannot stop with the completion of a report. Its findings need to be presented to all groups concerned. Its values need to be publicized. The Toms River newspapers published a series of articles written by a Junior in the journalism section of English. News stories were given to the press during each step in the survey, and editorials were also helpful. Survey results and statistics were presented in talks to civic groups, as well as to teachers, pupils, and parents. In such meetings the talks were supplemented by graphic presentation and general discussion. The survey reports were widely distributed to local persons, to libraries, and to educational institutions.

As a public relations instrument we in Toms River felt the survey was effective. It aroused community interest; it increased good mutual relations; it furthered the existing co-operative attitude; it informed the public through action initiated by the school.

QUALIFICATIONS AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF DIRECTORS OF STUDENT TEACHING AND OF SUPERVISING TEACHERS

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*

EFFICIENT off-campus programs of student teaching depend on a number of factors. Among these are the education, experience, and responsibilities of the directors of off-campus student teaching and of the co-operating supervising teachers.

This article presents a general overview of the qualifications and responsibilities of the directors of student teaching and of the co-operating supervising teachers in 112 teacher-training institutions carrying on programs of off-campus student teaching in public co-operating schools. The data presented are part of those obtained in an eighteen-month study in these institutions carried on by the Arkansas State Teachers College.

SUBJECTS OF THE STUDY

Of the 112 directors of student teaching included in this investigation, one served two institutions in the same city. Fourteen, or 12.5 per cent, were women, all of whom served in state-supported or in privately endowed colleges of liberal arts.

The term "co-operating supervising teacher" is used in this article to mean a classroom teacher in the public co-operating school who directs (supervises) the work of the student teachers assigned to his room. Of the 112 co-operating supervising teachers who were included in this investigation, 71, or 63.4 per cent of those reporting, were women. One of the co-operating supervisors served in this capacity for two institutions in the same city.

EDUCATION OF DIRECTORS

Sixty-one of the directors of student teaching, more than half, reported that they held the Doctor's degree (Table 1). Twenty-one directors, or nearly a fifth of those reporting, had no training beyond the Master's degree. Six directors held only the Bachelor's degree.

The median director of off-campus student teaching was well qualified by academic training for the duties of his office. The data show, however, that a number of the directors had not had any courses in curriculum, supervision, or administration at the graduate level. The median for these directors of student teaching was from six to eight graduate semester hours in supervision, from six to eight graduate semester hours in curriculum, from eighteen to twenty graduate semester hours in administration, and from

fifty-five to fifty-nine semester hours in all professional education courses.

EXPERIENCE OF DIRECTORS

The median director of student teaching was also well qualified by experience for his duties. The median for directors was from six to eight years of experience in classroom teaching at all levels, from three to five years' experience in supervision at all levels, and from one to two years' experience as an administrator before employment as director of student teaching. Twenty-five directors, or 22.3 per cent, had had no administrative experience at any level. Twenty of these held the Doctor's degree; four, the Master's degree; and one, only the Bachelor's degree.

It is recognized that the mere possession of higher degrees and of much experience in school work does not qualify a person to be a director of student teaching. The director should also have a dynamic personality and a democratic philosophy of education. These two qualifications are mentioned together because the possession of one without the other would not be desirable. It is inconceivable that a director without a democratic philosophy of education would be able to radiate enthusiasm and to stimulate others to their best efforts.

TABLE 1

PROFESSIONAL DEGREES HELD BY 112 DIRECTORS OF STUDENT TEACHING AND BY 112 CO-OPERATING SUPERVISING TEACHERS

Professional Degree	Directors		Supervising Teachers	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Doctor of Education	24	21.4	.....	.....
Doctor of Philosophy	37	33.0	3	2.7
Master's degree plus two years	17	15.2	14	12.5
Master's degree plus one year	13	11.6	18	16.1
Master's degree	15	13.4	45	40.1
Bachelor's degree	6	5.4	32	28.6
Total	112	100.0	112	100.0

RESPONSIBILITIES OF DIRECTORS

Character of responsibilities.—No attempt was made to ascertain the supervisory responsibilities of directors of student teaching. A study reported by Risheberger[1] indicated that 79 per cent of the directors of student teaching in his study were responsible for supervision of student teaching in one or more areas. Risheberger concludes: "In reality, all except 10.6 per cent of the directors reporting should be designated supervising directors of student teaching."

[1] Paul A. Risheberger, "A Survey of Student Teaching Facilities and Practices in Accredited Teacher Education Institutions of Pennsylvania," p. 2. Unpublished dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1946.

In the present study no attempt was made to ascertain the number of hours that directors of student teaching devoted to their duties. Risheberger found that the responsibility most frequently reported, in addition to other duties, was membership on committees.

Application for admission to student teaching.—Fifty-eight directors, or 51.8 per cent of those reporting, stated that application for admission to student teaching was approved by the director of student teaching; 20.5 per cent stated that approval for admission to student teaching rested in the hands of the dean of the college; 17 directors, or 15.2 per cent, said that a committee for student teaching approved admission; and only 12.5 per cent stated that application for admission to student teaching was approved by the head of the department of education.

Final authority concerning student teaching.—Fifty-six directors, or 50 per cent, stated that final authority in all matters pertaining to student teaching rested in the hands of the director of student teaching. Only one director reported that the college faculty had final authority in all matters pertaining to student teaching. Final authority rested with a committee for student teaching in 8.0 per cent of the institutions, and the dean of the college had the final word in 17.9 per cent of the institutions. Four directors, 3.6 per cent of the directors represented in this study, reported that final authority rested with some other (unnamed) person or organization. Thirty-three directors did not respond to the question.

Assignment of student teachers to schools.—Eighty-five directors, or 75.9 per cent of those reporting, indicated that the director of student teaching had the responsibility for assigning student teachers to the public co-operating schools; 7.1 per cent stated that this responsibility rested with the head of the department of education; while 3.6 per cent of the institutions reported that the committee for student teaching carried this responsibility. Four directors, 3.6 per cent, reported that the area supervisor assigned student teachers, and 6.3 per cent of the directors stated that some other person or organization was charged with this duty.

Assignment of student teachers within the co-operating school.—Seventy-one directors, or 63.4 per cent of the directors reporting, stated that the responsibility for assigning student teachers within the public co-operating schools rested in the hands of the director of student teaching, and 20.5 reported that assignment of the student teachers was the duty of the superintendent of the public co-operating school. The committee for student teaching was charged with the responsibility in one institution, and the dean of the college discharged the function in another institution. Seven directors, or 6.3 per cent, stated that assignment of student teachers within the co-operating school was made by the head of the department of education, while

one director reported that the area supervisor made such assignments. Eight directors mentioned no specific arrangement.

EDUCATION OF SUPERVISING TEACHERS

As is shown in Table 1, only 2.7 per cent of the co-operating supervising teachers (two men and one woman) held the Doctor's degree, while 77, or 68.7 per cent, held the Master's degree. The Bachelor's degree was held by 28.6 per cent of the co-operating supervising teachers.

It is significant that, while 32 co-operating supervising teachers held no more than a Bachelor's degree, only three supervisors had less than three semester hours of credit in education at the graduate level. The median supervising teacher had from six to eight semester hours of credit in curriculum, from six to eight semester hours in supervision, and from fifteen to seventeen semester hours in professional courses at the graduate level.

EXPERIENCE OF SUPERVISING TEACHERS

One hundred and twelve co-operating supervisors, 100 per cent, had had experience as classroom teachers at the elementary, secondary, or college level. Median experience for the co-operating supervisors in classroom teaching at all levels was between nine and eleven years. The median supervisor had had from none to two years of experience in supervision and no experience as an administrator.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF SUPERVISING TEACHERS

An attempt was made to ascertain the per cent of the school day devoted to the supervision of student teaching, the maximum number of student teachers assigned to one co-operating teacher per hour, and the maximum number of student teachers assigned to one co-operating teacher each semester.

Time devoted to supervision of student teaching.—Table 2 shows that 20 co-operating teachers, or 17.8 per cent, spent less than 10 per cent of the school day solely in supervising student teachers in their charge. The median co-operating supervising teacher spent 28 per cent of the school day in supervising student teachers.

TABLE 2

PER CENT OF SCHOOL DAY SPENT BY SUPERVISING TEACHERS IN SUPERVISION OF STUDENT TEACHERS IN 112 INSTITUTIONS

Per Cent of School Day	Supervising Teachers	
	Number	Per Cent
100	4	3.6
75–99	11	9.8
50–74	17	15.2
25–49	28	25.0
10–24	32	28.6
0– 9	20	17.8
Total	112	100.0

Student teachers assigned to supervising teacher in one class period.—Two co-operating supervisors, or 1.8 per cent of those reporting, stated that the maximum number of student teachers

assigned them for one class period was eight; two co-operating teachers reported seven; and one supervisor had six. The median supervising teacher had a maximum of one student teacher assigned him for one class period.

Student teachers assigned to supervising teacher in one semester.—Two co-operating supervisors, or 1.8 per cent, stated that the maximum number of student teachers assigned them for the semester was sixteen; one was assigned thirteen student teachers; and one was assigned twelve in a single semester. The median co-operating teacher stated that three student teachers was the maximum assigned.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE DATA

Two groups of persons co-operate in the immediate task of preparing prospective teachers through programs of off-campus student teaching: the directors of student teaching and the co-operating teachers in the public schools. As may be expected, the individuals composing these groups differ in points of view, professional experience, and in the ability to direct the activities of those who are in the process of becoming teachers. As might not be expected, the individuals composing these groups are in almost complete agreement that serious handicaps exist in the administration of programs of off-campus student teaching.

The data that were collected in this study prompt the following recommendations.

1. On the co-operating supervising teacher, perhaps more than on any other individual, rests the success of the student-teaching program. The better the co-operating supervisor in the public school, the greater is the probability that the student teacher will have good professional preparation. The co-operating teacher's first responsibility, however, is to the pupils in his room. If, for any reason, the needs of the pupils exact most of the teacher's available time, no student teacher should be assigned to him.

2. Co-operating supervising teachers, upon attainment of commensurate standards in formal education and experience, should be given the same privileges and salaries that are enjoyed by the staff of the teacher-preparation institution. They should be given the same titles and ranks that are given the college staff.

3. Co-operating supervising teachers should be selected jointly by the authorities of the teacher-preparation institution and the officials of the public co-operating school.

4. The job of director of student teaching encompasses excessive demands which circumscribe the effectiveness of off-campus student teaching. To facilitate his job and to expedite the administration of the program, the director of student teaching should appoint a "committee for integration of off-campus student teaching," of which the director should serve as co-ordinator. The committee should include approximately equal numbers of representatives from the co-operating supervising teachers, the college supervisor of student teaching, the college instructors of professional courses, the college subject-matter instructors, the officials from the public co-operating school, and students.

FOR A BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF ENTERING STUDENTS[1]

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*

SAM will need help with reading. He will need help emotionally even more. As he feels now, he wouldn't be caught trying to learn." This side light on Sam is from a recorded interview of a high-school counselor with the boy's eighth-grade teacher. It is a part of a sizable amount of information which the elementary school gave the high school to help Sam get off to a good start. Knowing as much as possible about all students in advance of a first meeting in the classroom is important, but to know the "Sams" is particularly so. This article will describe some of the ways that have been used to get acquainted with the high school's newest group, the Freshmen.

Sources of information in the elementary schools, and later within the high school itself, are drawn upon by those persons responsible for program-making, orientation, and guidance of students. They, with the assistance of others whom they may wish to call upon, collect information and make it readily accessible to teachers. The elementary schools further understanding through (1) passing along to the high school the cumulative records of the eighth-grade students, (2) granting personal interviews to counselors, (3) responding to questionnaires or check lists, and (4) making room on the school calendar for testing achievement at the end of Grade VIII.

THE CUMULATIVE RECORD

Since the elementary-school principal ordinarily has no need for the cumulative record after a student has completed the work in his school, he is willing to send it to the high school in which the student enrols. A good cumulative record will show (1) the family history, (2) the health and physical record of the student, (3) the progress at each grade level, (4) the results of achievement and intelligence tests, (5) attendance, and (6) recommendations concerning guidance in high school.

Most record blanks have space for the inclusion of such facts as the rela-

[1] This article is based upon the author's experience as a teacher of remedial English in the Simonsen High School at Jefferson City, Missouri, and in the Leyden Community High School at Franklin Park, Illinois. Drawing upon her experience in the two situations, she is able to write about procedures used to bring about a better understanding of students.

tions of the student with his peer group and his general social development; but much of this personal information, so important to understanding, is often omitted. Cumulative records may need to be supplemented by a personal interview.

RECORDED INTERVIEW WITH THE TEACHER

A recording machine in the hands of a school counselor, or any person skilled in interviewing, facilitates the work of collecting information. The counselor goes into the elementary school with the request that she be permitted to interview the teachers who know the eighth-grade students who will be entering the high school. She aims at a conversational and informal interview. The ease of recording and the fact that the information is to be handled discretely make for unhampered discussion. If the school is small, all students can be discussed. The questioning follows this pattern:

1. What do you know about this student?
2. In what ways has he succeeded? Failed?
3. What is his reading ability? Ability in mathematics? If there is a deficiency, to what do you attribute it? Has he been given any special training to correct deficiencies? What tests were used to measure his ability? Do you feel that they gave an accurate measurement?
4. Are there evidences of emotional disturbance? How does the student work with others? Are there individuals who have a good or bad effect on him? How secure is he in his home life? Are the parents too exacting? Do they exert too much pressure on him to succeed?
5. What health factors enter the picture? Is there a vision or hearing handicap? Is his general health good?
6. What are his special interests? Can he create, for example, through writing or art? Does he excel at the things he creates or do they serve chiefly as emotional outlets?
7. What is the attitude of his parents toward education? Toward school and the present teachers? How much formal education have the parents had? What home contacts have been made? What is the occupation of the father? Should the family income be classified as low, medium, or high? What is the standard of living?
8. What would you recommend that we attempt to do for the student in the high school? What regular courses should he pursue? What extra-curriculum activities should he follow?

The following excerpts from interviews at which Charles and Ted were discussed show what can be learned.

INTERVIEW ABOUT CHARLES

Charles is a good-looking boy. I had him in summer school. . . . He must have been retained somewhere along the line because he is older than the other students. He is a long, lanky boy and really good in basketball. But even in sports he takes defeat and adverse criticism poorly. He thinks everyone has it in for him. He argues with the coach, and he resents being fouled.

He says the other students make fun of him when he reads; so I do not have him read aloud in front of them. He reads at the fourth-grade level. No special training has been given him. I doubt that his parents can afford to send him to a reading clinic or hire a tutor for him. He will try hard in reading but will not try in spelling.

He wants attention and is extremely sensitive. . . . He cannot be left alone in the room. If left alone, he does such things af splashing ink on the bulletin board and tearing down the displays.

At home the mother has given up manag-

ing him. He is an only child. She has been made nervous to the point of illness over his incorrigibility. It seems that both parents appreciate the school and want the boy to conform. There is no evidence that undue pressure to succeed comes from the home.

Charles has only one buddy. That is Ted.

INTERVIEW ABOUT TED

Ted is another reading and spelling problem. He is at the girl-crazy stage. He is an only son. There are four or five sisters. One has been in the same grade and room with him. She does not get along well in school either. I think the fact that he feels he and his sister are always being singled out as a pair of poor students is not good.

Ted and Charles are a bad influence on each other. They should be scheduled in different classes. Like Charles, Ted is guilty of deliberate vandalism and seems to have been uncontrolled all of his life.

Ted does not like the reading-improvement work we are giving him. He reads on a fifth-grade level. His arithmetic skill is a little better. A foreign language is spoken in the home. No school visitation person has visited the family.

Ted will like basketball, and he might like to play the drum in the band.

Reporting such as is shown in these excerpts makes claim to helpfulness rather than completeness. In program-planning and other guidance, it is helpful to know about special abilities and interests just as it is to know about deficiencies. It is well to know the attitude the teachers have had toward the student and that often little has been done to get at the causes of objectionable behavior and poor academic achievement.

Drawing upon the information obtained about Charles, we conclude that the only interest at which he has been successful has been basketball. Since the high-school teachers will know of this interest, they may be able to make him feel secure and happy in physical-education classes. He wants to learn to read and must be given a chance in a reading-improvement class. It should not be too difficult to make the transition from interest in reading to interest in spelling. His elementary school is one in which instruction in music and art has been sharply curtailed. No one has attempted to reach him through those courses. It is possible, then, that the high-school courses in art, music, and shop may appeal to him. That he has emotional problems one can be sure. He will need to be a special charge of the counselor for boys.

Ted's high-school program should look much like the program outlined for Charles. Since both boys are over-aggressive and said to be bad for each other, they will be scheduled in different sections of academic courses, such as English. In basketball they should probably be on the same team.

THE CHECK LIST

Check lists have a limited value. It takes time to fill them out, and the person responsible may feel there is no immediate pressure to complete them. There is a tendency to give only the information definitely called for, with none of the desired extra comments needed for adequate understanding. People are sometimes reluctant to write down information that they would give freely in an interview.

However, in certain situations it is better to solicit specific information through a check list than through the interview or other means. This list, aimed at obtaining specific information, has been used:

1. List the names of your eighth-grade students having special interest or ability in music, art, speech activities or dramatics, writing, and athletics.
2. List those who will need guidance in adjusting socially. Include the names of those students who, rejected by their peer group, withdraw from social activities.
3. List students who have a physical handicap. Be sure to mention defective vision or hearing.
4. Give the names of any who will need to work for their lunch.
5. List those students who have a handicap in speech, reading, spelling, or arithmetic. Information on probable causes and any corrective program followed will be helpful.

ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

The elementary-school principals make room on the calendar for achievement testing at the end of the eighth year. Students are tested for skill in mathematics and reading before entering high school. In most cases they will be told the results in grade equivalents, percentile ranks, or in whatever terms they can understand. They ought to be made aware of their weaknesses in essential skills but given to understand that improvement through the high-school corrective program is possible. Since the testing will be of direct value to the high school for case study and guidance, it is the practice for the high school to furnish the tests, administer them, and check results.

AIDING STUDENTS IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

Having in hand the information that the elementary schools have supplied, the high school then uses its own resources and methods to become better acquainted with the students. These include procedures employed in many high schools, such as (1) holding conferences on special cases by the teachers concerned, (2) studying personal information sheets and interest inventories filled out by the students, (3) retesting achievement and intelligence, (4) having the students write autobiographies, and (5) maintaining close contacts with the homes. Through use of the information obtained from the elementary schools and the further guidance measures carried out in the high school, the students' adjustment at the higher level is greatly assisted.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

I. Curriculum, Methods of Teaching and Study and Supervision, and Measurement

WALTER J. MOORE
University of Illinois

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THE term "instruction" here includes curriculum, methods of teaching and study and supervision, and measurement (or evaluation). The vertical scope of secondary education, as represented in the items of the list, extends through junior high school, senior high school, and junior college.

It is not the purpose of this list of references to furnish a complete bibliography of writings in the fields designated. Accordingly, in areas with especially large numbers of items in the published literature, some good items have been omitted, and the items which have been retained are representative rather than comprehensive.

Curriculum[1]

1. Arnheim, Roy L. "Improvements in the Junior High School Program," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (April, 1952), 311–17.

   Declares that three areas of improvement in which progress has been made are (1) guidance, (2) establishment of classes for the educationally and mentally retarded, and (3) the practice of democracy on the staff level.

2. Batchelder, Howard T., and Engle, Shirley H. *Some Characteristics of the Secondary School of the Future in the Light of Modern Developments*. Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXVII, No. 3. Bloomington, Indiana: Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University, 1951. Pp. 34.

   Presents a selective summary of the group thinking of workshop participants regarding the need for changes in the secondary school.

3. Brandes, Louis G. "The Core Curriculum in the Secondary Schools," *Progressive Education*, XXIX (February, 1952), 141–43.

   Asserts that reorganization of the secondary schools along core principles is vital and stresses need for study of the elements involved in planning for the core curriculum.

4. Brown, Blanche; Hiller, Carl; and Beck, Charles F. "The Museum and the Core Program," *High Points in the*

[1] See also Item 621 (Beals) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1952, issue of the *School Review;* Item 764 (Johnson) in the December, 1952, issue of the same journal; and Item 781 (Mickelson) in the December, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

Work of the High Schools of New York City, XXXIV (April, 1952), 12–15.

Describes an experiment in museum orientation with emphasis upon applications to the core program in the secondary school.

5. CAFFIN, MILTON D. "Recasting the Secondary Curriculum," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIV (February, 1952), 27–31.

Suggests modifications of existing curriculum practices, with particular emphasis on the development of the general diploma course.

6. CANTOR, NATHANIEL. "The Reality-centered School," *Teachers College Record*, LIII (March, 1952), 312–16.

Maintains that the "reality-centered" school strikes a balance between the needs of the child and the needs of the community.

7. CASWELL, HOLLIS L. "Postwar Trends in Curriculum Development," *NEA Journal*, XLI (February, 1952), 93–95.

Delineates trends relating to organization and content of the curriculum as well as to procedures of curriculum development and calls attention to the challenges of unsolved problems.

8. "Conference on Curriculum Improvement," *Teachers College Record*, LIII (December, 1951), 121–49.

Reprints addresses devoted to problems of curriculum improvement by Goodwin Watson ("Uncertain Voyage"), Nathaniel Cantor ("People and Uncertainty"), Robert Saudek ("Radio in Today's World"), and L. Thomas Hopkins ("The Certainties in Our Profession").

9. COOK, LLOYD ALLEN. "The School's Role in Relation to Area Youth Agencies," *Educational Leadership*, IX (January, 1952), 225–29.

Calls for a partnership between the school and community agencies, for "where social lags, problems, needs arise, where change is rampant, new services are a necessity."

10. DEATON, JOSEPH C. SR., "Core-organized School in Action," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (March, 1952), 133–38.

Describes the operation of a total-core program at the junior high school level, considering administrative implications, the cost of operation, and activities typical of core groups.

11. DOUGLASS, HARL R. "The Role of the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (April, 1952), 303–10.

Calls, as a pioneer in the junior high school movement, for recognition of the importance of social and emotional adjustment of youth and argues that the major role of the junior high school lies in providing continuity of such adjustment.

12. *Education in the United States of America*. United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1951, Special Series No. 3. Pp. iv+62.

A bulletin for foreign visitors designed to provide general background information through a discussion of the American school system from elementary through adult levels.

13. EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. *Education for* ALL *American Youth: A Further Look*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1952. Pp. xii+402.

A revision of the document first appearing in 1944 which includes additional chapters reporting on recent developments and currently important problems in secondary education.

14. FRANZEN, CARL G. F. "Life Adjustment and the Four Major Objectives of Secondary Education," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (October, 1951), 99–111.

Reasons that curriculum change from within is dependent upon reorganization and revitalization of the information of each course in such a way that it contributes to life-adjustment education for every youth.

15. GODDARD, ARTHUR. "Animadversions on the Core Curriculum," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIV (April, 1952), 28–39.

Evaluates the core program and, while indorsing some devices utilized for enrichment, objects to claimed prevalence of "Pansophism, the incompetent teaching of subject matter, reduction of confusion of the categories of subject matter, the elimination of intrinsic values, and the slanting of the entire curriculum in the direction of the core."

16. GRACE, ALONZO G. "Desirable Characteristics of a Modern Secondary School," *NEA Journal*, XLI (March, 1952), 145–47.

Lists twelve characteristics which are adjudged desirable for secondary schools in our time.

17. HERRIOTT, M. E. (chairman). "Organizing the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (December, 1951), 6–157.

Entire issue devoted to a report prepared by the Committee on Junior High School Problems of the California Association of Secondary School Principals. Considers organization and administrative factors, suggests ways and means of improvement, and indicates some prevailing influences which are likely to produce transitions.

18. HOGAN, CHARLES A. "The Study Day—An Experiment in Curriculum Change," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 180–88.

Recounts highlights of long experience with "The Study Day" and describes its utility as a vehicle for curriculum change.

19. "How Can We Improve the High-School Curriculum on the State Level?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (April, 1952), 208–20.

A series of four papers addressed to the same general topic. Paul D. Collier maintains that the success of improvement programs depends on faculty identification of problems; sufficient time for orientation, exploration, and study; and funds to implement the program undertaken. William I. King recounts factors hampering curriculum development in sparsely populated areas and offers five suggestions believed helpful in advancing change. Werner C. Dieckmann believes that the state-wide conference can highlight problems needing study at the local level and that adequate consultant service and study materials must be provided. Arthur Carpenter outlines six phases of the development of state courses of study as devices designed to improve the curriculum.

20. JACOBSON, P. B. "Planning and the Curriculum," *Progressive Education*, XXIX (February, 1952), 135–37.

Advances belief that planning the curriculum is a responsibility of the superintendent and his administrative staff and that "the planning must be more adequately done with respect to both time and money."

21. JEWETT, JAMES P. "Whose Needs—Concrete Individual versus Abstract Society?" *Educational Forum*, XVI (May, 1952), 421–26.

Decries emphasis put upon needs of the individual as opposed to the society's needs.

22. *Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth*. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1951, No. 22. Pp. iv+108.

Presents in permanent form materials previously issued in mimeographed and offset formats under the title "Every Youth in High School—Life Adjustment Education for Each."

23. MACKENZIE, GORDON N. "Cooperative Testing-in-Action and Implementing of

Ideas," *Teachers College Record*, LIII (May, 1952), 423–38.

Examines three important aspects of professional life and development, curriculum ideas, curriculum research or problem-solving, and the preparation of teachers and other curriculum workers.

24. MERRITT, ELEANOR, and HARAP, HENRY. *Trends in Production of Teaching Guides: A Survey of Courses of Study Published in 1948 through 1950*. Nashville, Tennessee: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1952. Pp. 32.

A critical study of 543 representative curriculum guides. Reports general trends as they apply to all courses of study, such as format, leadership, experimentation, objectives, and units of work, as well as tendencies in each of the subjects.

25. NATIONAL COUNCIL OF INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS. "The Functions of Independent Secondary Education in the United States," *School and Society*, LXXIV (September 8, 1951), 145–50.

Discusses the functions of independent schools and calls for a "completely disinterested, thorough, and factual study of the secondary independent schools of the United States."

26. OLIVER, ALBERT I. "Overcoming Curriculum Problems in the Small High School," *Education at Mid-Century*, pp. 247–56. Thirty-eighth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. LII, No. 1. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1951.

Throws light on a perplexing problem facing small high schools by considering (1) guiding principles, (2) a common-learnings program, (3) needs for special education, (4) ways of expanding the curriculum.

27. PERDEW, PHILLIP W. "The Secondary School Program in World War II," *History of Education Journal*, III (Winter, 1952), 43–48. Ann Arbor, Michigan: National Society of College Teachers of Education.

Cites the many and varied changes made in the secondary-school curriculum in order to relate it more effectively to the war effort and shows wherein certain criticisms were valid and others totally unjustified by the facts.

28. PIERCE, PAUL R. "Co-operative Curriculum Improvement in Chicago Public Schools," *Educational Forum*, XVI (May, 1952), 459–67.

Describes the origin and the implementation of an improvement program which utilized a framework built upon nine major functions of living and was designed to develop activities appropriate to the preschool curriculum and through various stages to adulthood.

29. RISTOW, LESTER W. "Democratic Action in Curriculum Development: Opportunities and Problems," *California Journal of Educational Research*, III (May, 1952), 104–8.

Indicates that democratic action in curriculum development must begin with the education of committee members and that such action matures only when individuals concerned learn to work together.

30. ROBB, FELIX C. "The South and Its Regional Education Program," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXII (Winter, 1952), 26–48.

Traces the background and development of the Southern Regional Education program, describes progress being made in the attack upon regional problems, and delineates factors impeding the optimal effectiveness of the plan.

31. RUSSELL, EDWARD J. "Curriculum Design for Junior High School," *Nation's Schools*, L (August, 1952), 60–62.

Reports on long-range plans for curriculum changes focused on present-day needs and those projected over a decade.

32. SANFORD, CHARLES W. and OTHERS. *The Story in Nineteen Schools: Reports of*

Progress on Curriculum Developmental Projects. Sponsored by the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program. Circular Series A, No. 51. Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 10. Springfield, Illinois: State Superintendent of Instruction, 1950.

One of the reports of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program which relates how classroom and laboratory practices in nineteen schools have changed to the degree that administrators, teachers, and pupils believe that learning has improved for the pupils concerned.

33. SIMNEY, LUCILLE. "A Teacher Looks at the Double-Period Program," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (March, 1952), 146–47.

Relates reactions and cites advantages and disadvantages of the double-period program at the junior high school level.

34. STEINBERG, SAMUEL. "The Core Curriculum: Menace or Promise?" *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIV (April, 1952), 24–27.

Envisions advantages accruing from the core approach while drawing attention to cautions to be observed if the program is to demonstrate maximum effectiveness.

35. "A Study of Core Curricula in Kansas: Four Programs Described," *University of Kansas Bulletin of Education*, VI (November, 1951), 1–8.

A follow-up study of core programs at the junior and senior high school levels which describes progress in four school systems.

36. WRIGHT, GRACE S.; GAUMNITZ, WALTER H., and MCDONALD, EVERETT A., JR. *Education Unlimited: A Community High School in Action*. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1951, No. 5. Pp. iv+36.

Shows how one small high school was able to overcome limitations of financial resources, inadequate plant and equipment, small enrolments, restricted curriculum offerings, and small staff in providing a program designed to serve all youth.

37. ZIRBES, LAURA. "Our Research Responsibilities," *Educational Leadership*, IX (May, 1952), 485–88.

Presents an "uncontroversial analytical consideration of a long-term curriculum concern with planning, and a considered approach to research as a substitute for unconsidered curriculum change or controversial criticism."

METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION[2]

38. ANDREE, ROBERT G. "Discovering the Needs of City Youth," *Nation's Schools*, XLIX (February, 1952), 39–42.

Presents a new type of questionnaire devised to get at *patterns* of needs rather than *isolated* needs of adolescents.

39. BARNES, FRED P. "Materials of Learning—and Learning," *Educational Leadership*, IX (April, 1952), 402–8.

Delineates four progressive phases in the learning process and calls for definition, selection, utilization, and evaluation of materials which are necessary for purposeful implementation of the learning phases described.

40. BLANC, SAM S. "Vitalizing the Classroom," *Educational Leadership*, IX (April, 1952), 444–47.

Describes techniques of utilization of materials representing tangible experiences—objects, specimens, models, and mock-ups.

41. BRIGGS, THOMAS H., and JUSTMAN, JOSEPH. *Improving Instruction through Supervision* (A revision of *Improving Instruction*). New York: Macmillan Co., 1952. Pp. x+524.

A revision of a standard textbook, concerned with supervision at elementary- and secondary-school levels. Treats of time-tested

[2] See also Items 576 (Mallinson and Crumrine) and 599 (*After Teen-Agers Quit School*) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1952, issue of the *School Review*.

principles as well as recent developments in education which have affected the role and responsibility of the supervisor.

42. CANTOR, NATHANIEL. "Focus and Function in Group Discussion," *Teachers College Record*, LIII (April, 1952), 375–82.

Criticizes group discussion and group dynamics for looseness of structure, absence of focus, and denial of psychological realities. Presents a "functional" approach to group discussion and conference techniques.

43. CARTER, HAROLD D. "What Are Some of the Basic Problems in Analysis of Study Techniques?" *California Journal of Educational Research*, II (September, 1951), 170–74.

Reports a study which sought to determine through a standardized set of questions, the consistent differences in methods of study reported by high- and low-achieving students.

44. CHILDS, GAYLE B. "Supervised Correspondence Study," *Clearing House*, XXVI (September, 1951), 3–6.

Offers a report of the effectiveness of supervised correspondence study as compared with regular classroom instruction in terms of subject-matter achievement only.

45. COHN, MURRAY A. "Criteria of an Ideal Lesson," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIV (June, 1952), 25–31.

Offers criteria for an ideal lesson developed by a staff for a specific content field but with implications for the development of techniques applicable in any area.

46. COOKE, EDWARD W. "Ability Grouping," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 79–83.

Describes a three-way program of grouping in certain subject areas and draws implications for other fields.

47. DAHLOR, H. W. "Contribution of Work Experience," *Problems in Individual Analysis*, pp. 65–73. Kansas State Teachers College Bulletin, Vol. XLVII, No. 7. Pittsburg, Kansas: Kansas State Teachers College, 1951.

Lists types of information which may be secured about high-school pupils through supervised work experience and suggests techniques helpful in the evaluation of such experience.

48. DOBBS, HARRISON ALLEN. "How Teachers Feel and the Welfare of Children," *School Review*, LX (January, 1952), 15–23.

Defines appropriate attitudes for teachers and makes ten suggestions that aid in building up strength in the areas delineated.

49. GILCHRIST, ROBERT S. "Are Schools Meeting the Imperative Needs of Youth?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (October, 1951), 82–87.

Reports practices in sixty-two schools and concludes that "the single most important way" for a school to meet the imperative needs of youth is for the principal to give curriculum leadership.

50. GRAGG, MARGARET, and WEY, HERBERT. "What Supervision?" *Journal of Teacher Education*, III (June, 1952), 133–35.

Reports a study of teachers in their first year of professional service as secondary-school personnel and offers several suggestions believed helpful in coping with in-service problems.

51. GUENTHER, KARL. "Techniques and Findings of Student Follow-up Studies in California," *California Journal of Educational Research*, III (May, 1952), 113–17.

Analyzes data from twenty-six investigations which sought to ascertain what happens to school graduates as the basis for guidance practices and curriculum revision programs.

52. "How Much Work Experience in Our Programs for Youth?" *Bulletin of the Na-*

tional Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXXVI (March, 1952), 179–89.

In the first of two articles, Wilson H. Ivins points out that it is necessary to ascertain how much satisfactory work experience students are getting, the nature of group and individual needs that will be served by work experience, the types available, and the costs involved. Warren C. Seyfert considers such questions as credit for work experience, part-time work, and guidance service experience.

53. HUNT, HEROLD C. "Critical Issues in Secondary Education," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (April, 1952), 292–302.

Identifies critical issues as inability of the high school to retain youth in school, revitalizing the curriculum, military training, proselyting of high-school athletes, attacks on education, costs of education, and scarcities of facilities.

54. LESSER, MILTON S. "Getting Acquainted with Pupil Interests," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIII (December, 1951), 12–15.

Describes a questionnaire study devised to shed light on problems involving apathy and lack of motivation apparent in some average or below-average learners.

55. LONG, WATT A. "Senior High School Study Halls—Their Educational Function," *California Journal of Educational Research*, III (March, 1952), 74–79.

Reports a study which surveyed 2,820 students enrolled in 53 study halls to ascertain the external and internal conditions which affect the pursuit of satisfactory independent study.

56. MACKENZIE, GORDON N., and COREY, STEPHEN M. "A Conception of Educational Leadership," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 9–14.

Defines "leadership" and calls attention to some of the situational variables that have a bearing upon the identification, selection, and exercise of leadership.

57. MOORE, CLARENCE C. "The Good and Bad Points of 4 Teaching Methods," *Clearing House*, XXVI (February, 1952), 340–44.

Identifies four teaching methods, analyzes favorable and unfavorable consequences of their application, and considers possibilities inherent in other methods.

58. OSTRANDER, R. H. "Instructional Materials: Identify—Don't Censor," *Clearing House*, XXVI (October, 1951), 72–73.

Suggests a positive approach to the selection of instructional materials through the use of a committee which "censors nothing but works to detect propaganda and identify it for what it is, so that it may be used wisely in the schools."

59. OVSIEW, LEON, and OTHERS. *Making the Core Work*. New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, 1951. Pp. x+54.

Presents a "how-to-do-it" pamphlet developed by a junior high school faculty for implementing a core program as a way of teaching.

60. POND, FREDERICK L. "Determining the Needs of Youth," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (October, 1951), 88–98.

Describes a questionnaire submitted to 4,410 youth to ascertain whether effective curriculum practices are being used in achieving student needs.

61. ROHWEDER, M. C. "Shaping a Course To Meet Student Needs and Limitations," *Minnesota Journal of Education*, XXXI (May, 1951), 40–41.

Describes ways of developing courses designed to meet needs of college-preparatory and terminal students in high school.

62. ROMINE, STEPHEN. "What *One Teacher* Can Do," *Clearing House*, XXVI (October, 1951), 111–13.

Discusses four areas within which the classroom teacher may work with pupils for improvement: (1) understanding pupils better, (2) formulating educational goals, (3) providing suitable content and organization, (4) using appropriate instructional methods.

63. SPEARS, HAROLD. "Ten Features of Good High School Classrooms," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (May, 1952), 255–62.

Presents outstanding features of a good instructional program including methods, teacher attitudes, school atmosphere, and basic appreciations of the nature of youth and fundamental American ideals.

64. SRYGLEY, SARA KRENTZMAN, and SRYGLEY, THEODORE Q. "Materials of Instruction in Problem-centered Teaching," *Educational Leadership*, IX (April, 1952), 425–29.

Identifies barriers to effective use of materials, enumerates types of materials needed, and suggests ways for improving their use in problem-centered teaching.

65. *Suggestions to Teachers of Experimental Core Classes*. Curriculum Bulletin, 1950–51 Series, No. 2. Brooklyn: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1951. Pp. vi+104.

Presents representative units and suggestions growing out of experimentation with the core program for slow learners at the ninth- and tenth-grade levels. Has implications as well for core classes of heterogeneous groups and for bright pupils.

66. VANDER WERF, LESTER. "Toward Better Supervisors," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 5–8.

Describes a class in supervision concerned with problems of modernizing teacher attitudes, with student evaluation, with difficulties of teachers under inept supervisors, with teacher evaluation, and with professional ethics.

67. VARS, GORDON F. "Problems of a Beginning Core Teacher," *Educational Leadership*, IX (October, 1951), 12–16.

Identifies problem areas as proper use of longer blocks of time, development of skills of democratic participation, and awareness of needs, problems, and concerns of groups.

68. *Vitalizing Secondary Education: Report of the First Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth*. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1951, No. 3. Pp. vi+106.

Summarizes some of the Commission's activities "in democratizing American secondary education through efforts designed to retain in school all youth of high-school age and to provide appropriate educational programs for them."

69. WANN, KENNETH D. "Teachers as Researchers," *Educational Leadership*, IX (May, 1952), 489–95.

Points out that teachers' feelings of satisfaction resulting from participation in action research outweighed difficulties involved and reveals ways of facilitating curriculum research of the co-operative action type.

70. "What Supervisory Practices Promote Teacher Growth and Co-operation?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (April, 1952), 17–32.

In a joint discussion of this topic, Carl G. F. Franzen tells how "improvement sheets" were developed as supervisory instruments for improving methods of secondary-school supervision, and Lloyd W. Ashby enumerates some of the principles of supervision, with suggestions of techniques for implementing the principles.

MEASUREMENT[3]

71. ABRAHAMSON, STEPHEN. "School Rewards and Social-Class Status," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXXI (January 16, 1952), 8–15.

[3] See also Item 558 (Gilmore) in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1952,

Reports a research project which sought to determine whether children of higher social-class backgrounds tend to receive more than their proportionate share of rewards in twenty-four home-room groups in six junior high schools.

72. BARROWS, E. F. "Grades vs. Scores: Students Prefer Best-Effort Scoring," *Clearing House*, XXVI (January, 1952), 271–74.

Describes a system of marking which utilizes "scores" similar to the point systems in most popular sports and defends its utility in factual subjects.

73. BOLMEIER, E. C. "Administrative Aspects of the Standardized Testing Program," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Prcincipals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 62–69.

Maintains that standardized testing programs are appropriate for a school system if attention is given to (1) responsibility for the initiation and conduct of the program, (2) purposes of the tests, (3) areas for testing, (4) selecting the tests, (5) scheduling the administration of tests, (6) personnel for testing, (7) scoring the tests, and (8) utilizing the test scores.

74. BROWNELL, WILLIAM A. "Are We Putting Research to Work?" *California Journal of Educational Research*, III (March, 1952), 51–60.

Points out that, as research specialists, teachers are meeting fairly well the responsibility of improving educational practice and that research results *are* at work in modifying educational procedures and programs. Cautions against moving too quickly from research results to practical applications.

75. CARTER, ROBERT SCRIVEN. "How Invalid Are Marks Assigned by Teachers?" *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLIII (April, 1952), 218–28.

Reports an investigation which sought to determine whether teachers tend to favor one sex and whether the sex favored tends to be determined by the sex of the teacher.

76. CONRAD, HERBERT S. "The Appraisal of Personal Qualities," *Measurement and Evaluation in the Improvement of Education*, pp. 49–57. American Council on Education Series, Vol. XV. Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 46. Washington: American Council on Education, 1951.

Reviews methods currently used to appraise personality and recommends techniques which recognize the "desirability of verifying personality appraisals by comparing *predictions* of specific behavior with the behavior that is actually observed."

77. COREY, STEPHEN M. "Educational Research and the Solution of Practical Problems," *Educational Leadership*, IX (May, 1952), 478–84.

Attempts to show the relation between subjective methods of making practical decisions and "research" carried on by professionals. Declares that these differ only in *degree* of precision and eventually in the *degree* of confidence which are placed in results.

78. CUTTS, NORMA E. "Use of Tests by the Classroom Teacher," *Measurement and Evaluation in the Improvement of Education*, pp. 117–20. American Council on Education Series, Vol. XV. Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 46. Washington: American Council on Education, 1951.

Indicates eleven ways in which an adequate testing program may assist the classroom teacher, details results of a survey of actual practices, and makes suggestions for improvement in the utilization of tests.

79. DIEDERICH, PAUL B. "Planning a Comprehensive Evaluation Program," *Measurement and Evaluation in the Improvement of Education*, pp. 58–67. American Council on Education Series, Vol. XV.

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issue of the *School Review;* Item 614 (Rothney) in the September, 1952, issue; Item 677 (Lindecamp) in the October, 1952, issue; and Items 721 (Davis), 730 (Reile and Briggs), and 734 (Tussing) in the November, 1952, issue.

Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 46. Washington: American Council on Education, 1951.

Outlines a design for a comprehensive evaluation program and discusses necessity for obtaining continuous evidence.

80. *Evaluating Pupil Progress*. Bulletin of the California Department of Education, Vol. XXI, No. 6. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1952. Pp. viii+184.

Emphasizes instructional values to be derived from an all-inclusive program of evaluation which has as its major purpose the assisting of teachers in gathering and intepreting evidences of growth in skills, knowledges, attitudes, and understandings.

81. "Improving School Holding Power: Some Research Proposals." United States Office of Education Circular No. 291, 1951. Pp. 86 (processed).

Reports on development of research proposals for large city systems leading to improved holding power and pupil adjustment.

82. KELLER, IRVIN A. "A More Comprehensive and Significant Marking System," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 70–78.

Portrays variations in existing marking systems, and describes a dual system utilizing comparative and individual schemes.

83. KOEHLER, WARREN. "Objective Tests in Independent Schools," *Measurement and Evaluation in the Improvement of Education*, pp. 124–28. American Council on Education Series, Vol. XV. Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 46. Washington: American Council on Education, 1951.

Shows how one independent school utilizes tests in selection and guidance of students and calls attention to the need for more effective and efficient instruments for the appraisal of personality characteristics.

84. KVARACEUS, W. C. "Prerequisites to an Effective Testing Program," *School Review*, LX (January, 1952), 24–29.

Lists several conditions which must prevail if a school is attempting to set up an effective testing program.

85. LAFRANCHI, EDWARD H. "High School Marks: Comparative or Individual," *School Executive*, LXXI (July, 1952), 51–54.

Suggests that high-school courses in any one school could be divided into two groups: those that will be evaluated and marked on an absolute scale and those in which varying individual capacities will be considered.

86. LANGMUIR, CHARLES R. "Errors, Estimates, and Samples—The Indispensable Concepts," *Measurement and Evaluation in the Improvement of Education*, pp. 68–81. American Council on Education Series, Vol. XV. Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 46. Washington: American Council on Education, 1951.

Explains the significance and interrelationships of errors, estimates, and samples and shows how these concepts are basic to the construction and use of tests.

87. LINDQUIST, E. F. "Some Criteria of an Effective High School Testing Program," *Measurement and Evaluation in the Improvement of Education*, pp. 17–33. American Council on Education Series, Vol. XV. Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 46. Washington: American Council on Education, 1951.

Enumerates criteria currently utilized in testing programs and suggests the specifications for an improved type of program.

88. LLOYD, R. GRANN. "Research for the Classroom Teacher," *Negro Educational Review*, III (April, 1952), 52–56.

Enumerates five advantages accruing to the classroom teacher in the application of action research to the solution of a problematic situation or condition.

89. McKenna, Helen; Parrish, Louise; Waskin, Yvonne; and Boye, Charles L. "Evaluating Classroom Teaching," *Progressive Education*, XXIX (March, 1952), 176–81.

Recounts attempts to evaluate effectiveness of classroom teaching by group analysis and details some "blocks" encountered.

90. Manley, C. Benton. "How Should the Secondary School Evaluate and Record Student Progress?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 130–35.

Enumerates seven steps in developing a program of evaluation.

91. Passow, A. Harry, and Mackenzie, Gordon N. "Research in Group Behavior Shows Need for New Teaching Skills," *Nation's Schools*, XLIX (April, 1952), 71–73.

Reviews research findings in the group-dynamics areas and offers suggestions on types of skills in teaching necessary to implement these findings.

92. Rediger, Joseph. "Shall We 'Group' Students in Our High School?" *American School Board Journal*, CXXIII (November, 1951), 29–30.

Considers the question whether high-school students should be taught in homogeneous sections when "natural" selective factors do not operate or should be taught in unselected classes.

93. Rockowitz, Murray. "Know Thyself: Techniques in Pupil Self-Evaluation," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIII (October, 1951), 50–56.

Presents sixteen techniques which may be utilized by pupils in evaluating themselves.

94. Scates, Douglas E. "Some Problems Connected with Evaluation," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLV (April, 1952), 599–608.

Delineates three classes of problems in educational evaluation—philosophical, personal, and technical—as these affect practice and research.

95. Sims, Verner M. "A Technique for Measuring Social Class Identification," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XI (Winter, 1951, Part One), 541–48.

Describes the construction and evaluation of a scale designed to reveal the status which an individual unconsciously assigns himself.

96. Stanley, Julian C., Jr., "On the Adequacy of Standardized Tests Administered to Extreme Norm Groups," *Peabody Journal of Education*, XXIX (November, 1951), 145–53.

Demonstrates how failure to consider factorial content and difficulty level in the utilization of standardized tests reduces reliability of instruments.

97. Traxler, Arthur E. "Learning To Know Students," *Problems in Individual Analysis*, pp. 7–20; "Anecdotal Records," *ibid.*, pp. 47–64; "Cumulative Records," *ibid.*, pp. 74–84. Kansas State Teachers College Bulletin, Vol. XLVII, No. 7. Pittsburg, Kansas: Kansas State Teachers College, 1951.

In three articles, Traxler (1) delineates ten areas in which information is needed for guidance purposes and evaluates techniques commonly used to secure data; (2) suggests steps to be followed in introducing an anecdotal-record plan for evaluating pupil behavior; and (3) discusses cumulative records.

98. "What Kind of Testing Program in Today's Secondary School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (April, 1952), 154–66.

Two papers on the same topic. J. Thomas Hastings maintains that curriculum evaluation and student guidance constitute the basic purposes of tests built on four principles which he explains. Elmer J. Erickson gives his definition of a good program.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

HAROLD RUGG, *The Teacher of Teachers: Frontiers of Theory and Practice in Teacher Education*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. x+308. $4.00.

The general thesis of Rugg's book is: The teacher of teachers occupies not only a strategic but a crucial position within a democratic society; the position and its responsibilities become far more important in times of social crisis.

Two subsidiary theses are significant. First, the teachers of teachers should concern themselves with fundamental ideas, principles, or theory. Second, they should be concerned with the question of control of teacher education. The two problems, of design and of control, are inescapably joined. The author goes on to say that, generally, leaders in teacher education have not been concerned with the bold development of new ideas but have naïvely accepted the current dominant ideas, that they have been concerned less with basic concepts than with operational mechanics. They have not had sufficient prestige to exercise much control.

Rugg's volume is a fiery plea that those in teacher education recognize their opportunity and responsibility and do something about it. Anyone familiar with the soggy mediocrity (with certain brilliant exceptions) of teacher education may wonder what will come of the call to action.

The plea is backed up by one of Rugg's characteristic summary-interpretations of the history of teacher education in this country. The period 1890–1920 developed the "conforming way." The "creative way," isolated examples of which occurred from the beginning, developed chiefly from 1920 onward. In the final part of the book, entitled "Frontiers of Theory and Practice," one chapter elaborates with vigor the outlines of the necessary "foundations of education"; another includes interpretations of the programs of the growing number of institutions which are making a beginning on fundamental design for the education of teachers. The final chapter is a sober but eloquent plea for the creative mind in education.

The Preface and the first chapter supply the social setting which we may always count upon from Rugg. The consequences of the impact upon society of technological advances is made clear. The probable future developments in technology and their effects upon men and affairs are presented as challenges, not only to educators, but to all citizens. The effect of the rise of the masses is not specifically mentioned but is implicit throughout. The havoc wrought by the uncontrolled "practical man" and the ineffectiveness of the "creative man" in our society are presented in sharp contrasts which would doubtless be softened in a more extended volume. An able appeal for co-ordination of the efforts of "practical men" and "creative men" is included.

An important discussion in chapter ii ("The Conforming Way"), which prepares for the following discussion of the "creative way" and for the emphasis upon competent general education for the teacher, deals with new knowledges which have become available. The great advances in anthropology, modern sociology, bio-psychology, aesthetics, philosophy, and religion, with particular reference to their function in modern society, are indicated. Reference is also made to developments in history, political science, and economics. Educators, in general, were not aware of many of these important develop-

ments until fairly modern times. What is even more odd, many of the professors of liberal arts who were developing some of these materials were themselves unaware of the great importance of the materials for education.

Not all will agree with the interpretations and suggestions in the book. Philosophers, poets, top-flight scientists, and statesmen (as distinguished from politicians) will, in general, agree. Historians interested less in history and more in what history is about will find much to approve. These men heretofore have been the rear guard of culture. Rugg believes they had better play a part in the vanguard.

This volume is an excellent general statement on behalf of those who are developing the "foundations of education," and it will be of service to all in teacher education. Seminars in problems of teacher education will find that the book contains a usable quick summary of historical developments and a good indication of recent developments in the field (though the latter must be constantly supplemented from the periodical literature). They will also find it a constant stimulus to argument.

WILLIAM H. BURTON

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HARRINGTON WELLS, *Secondary Science Education*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xii+368. $4.50.

Secondary Science Education is, in the author's words, "designed to complement *Elementary Science Education in American Public Schools*," his previous volume. With our growing concern about a twelve-year program of science, this might be news, since Mr. Wells is the first worker in the field to go at science education with "both barrels." For such a task one needs a sound philosophy of general education, an understanding of child development, and a concern with the theory of learning. Traces of these attributes may be discerned in the two volumes, but the author fails to develop from them any unified picture of what science education is or should be.

The second of these volumes, to which this review is addressed, is organized in two parts. The first and largest, entitled "Theory and Practice," contains three chapters which might be put under theory, and seven under practice. Each of these seven deals with a specific secondary-school science, such as physics, chemistry, zoölogy, and botany.

At the outset, the book's emphasis on detailed subject matter, when things more fundamental in science education are slighted, must be challenged. Why does the author include a course outline for zoölogy—a course practically extinct in the secondary schools? And then there are *two* course outlines for botany—an offering almost as limited as zoölogy—one for regions with a "mild winter climate" and one for regions with a "severe winter climate." The author devotes a total of forty-five pages to botany and zoölogy, subjects without a future in secondary education, and only twenty-six pages to general biology, which most certainly has a future. The survey of general biology includes a three-page treatment (with stage directions) of an Arbor Day playlet. No space in this chapter is devoted to the role that the course might perform in meeting adolescent needs.

In the chapters devoted to theory the author pays passing tribute to the role of change and tentative judgment in science, but he couples this with such statements as these:

> The science man either knows or he does not know. If he knows, he no longer has need for "beliefs" or ideas.
>
> Fact is fact. . . . Students know or they do not know; the high-school science teacher knows this, and he knows he knows it.
>
> The facts he [the science teacher] presents are so: he knows that they are so.

Has not the author heard that modern science is relativistic?

In all fairness, there should be further documentation of the weaknesses which permeate this volume, but space does not permit this. Still, I am curious how, except for the

bare listing in his "Professional Methods Bibliography," the author can develop an approach to secondary-school science-teaching without further reference to the Progressive Education Association report, *Science in General Education*, or to the Forty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, *Science Education in American Schools*.

A clue to the author's approach to secondary science may lie in statements scattered here and there in the book. For example, the author pleads for good pronunciation to save the teacher from laughter and ridicule on the lecture platform. He discusses a simple test for protein which, incidentally, elementary-school children have safely used and adds that he invariably handles all such demonstrations from the lecture platform in the secondary school because that is the only wise and safe method. Didn't the secondary-school lecture platform pass its prime with the passing of the period of gaslight, horseless carriages, bustles, and high-school courses in botany and zoölogy?

This book does make a positive contribution to science education through its second part. Here the author lists names and addresses of supply houses; sources of visual aids; and helpful magazines, pamphlets, posters, and books. Albeit annotations are lacking where they would be the most helpful—for professional and content books—yet the list is adequate and, until parts become outdated in a year or so, may be of use to both teachers and teachers in training.

HERBERT S. ZIM

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EARL C. KELLEY and MARIE I. RASEY, *Education and the Nature of Man*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. xii+210. $3.00.

As the many pure sciences advance on a broad front, educators are on the alert for newly discovered items that may be of service in formulating their applied science. Earl C. Kelley and Marie I. Rasey, the authors of this little trial volume, have taken up a few fundamental matters of modern science—physical, biological, psychological, and social—and have examined them to see how these matters may contribute to the improvement of our yet primitive educational science. In some cases their interpretations and conclusions are in line with those of most persons who are studying the same problems, and sometimes they are widely at variance. But in pioneer work, where the evidence is only being assembled and where the ground must be explored in every direction, error and waste motion are inevitable portions of the process. Many must search in order that a few may find.

The authors of *Education and the Nature of Man* note the discovery of science that matter and energy are one. They see that energy and spirit are both nonmaterial and, thus, of kindred nature. It appears probable, then, that matter, energy, and spirit are one. Since a human life is a seventy-year process of accumulating and dispensing energy through the many channels of living, it may follow that education is properly the process of conditioning and guiding this miraculous seventy-year flow of energy that is the human spirit to the end that life may be full varied, worthy, and satisfying. It is a magnificent conception of education. The authors have glimpsed the possibilities and are trying to make the profession see. In this day of incredible confusion, when the state of the world is evidence that education has not yet learned how to educate, they are zealously searching for the avenue of advance.

The essays contained in this book are probably designed to make the profession aware of the possibilities and to make preliminary report of the authors' own early progress. Their treatment is too brief even to open up the problems, much less to make the possibilities understood. They mention in their Preface that the aged and failing John Dewey was able, in correspondence, to point out a number of fallacies in their ideas. If he

had had the book before him and if he had been in the fulness of his powers, they probably would have been surprised at the number of other fallacies that he might have noted.

Just as evident are the incompletenesses, inaccuracies, and omissions due to our modern habit of insufficient consideration before hasty publication. More than four hundred years ago, the great Vives, associate of Erasmus, wrote concerning books on education: "One who intends to become an author must read much, reflect much, write much, correct much, publish very little." And quoting Horace, "Do not hurry forward the publication of what is written; let it be delayed till the ninth year." Wisdom is a fruit of slow ripening.

The authors summarize their social thought thus: "As for Utopia, we are in favor of it. Any state of society where people live together in peace and happiness looks good" (p. 165). They believe that education can make the necessary changes in human nature. As they see it, the individual is a flow of energy, and energy is volatile and plastic beyond all things; hence human nature is highly plastic and can be shaped to the requirements of a new and wondrous social order. They believe that mankind can be made over by our educational institutions if proper relationships become as important as learning to multiply or to spell. They mention the year 2,000 A.D. as the time when the transfiguration might be sufficiently complete—if education would do its proper work.

Without optimism and dreams, there would be no zeal, nobody pushing us out of the ruts, no worthy advance. This old world needs its dreams, even when severed from wisdom. But wisdom is also good.

FRANKLIN BOBBITT

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OTTO POLLAK and COLLABORATORS, *Social Science and Psychotherapy for Children: Contributions of the Behavior Sciences to Practice in a Psychoanalytically Oriented Child Guidance Clinic.* New York 22: Russell Sage Foundation, 1952. Pp. 242, $4.00.

Mental hygiene in all its aspects has become an effective movement in the last forty years. The effect in the field of education has been to increase the sensitivity of school personnel to the individual child and to use the categories of psychopathology in the understanding of the child. On the other hand, the popularity of mental hygiene has had the effect of intensifying, in general, the concentration of psychotherapists on the individual case.

During this time the social scientists have been contributing to a growing bank of knowledge about the processes and situations which affect human behavior. There has been a great distance between those interested in the individual longitudinally and those interested in people cross-sectionally. Under the auspices and stimulation of the Russell Sage Foundation and its director, Donald Young, Otto Pollak, professor of sociology at the University of Pennsylvania, organized and directed a group of psychiatrists and psychiatric social workers connected with the Jewish Board of Guardians in a study of their work against a background of social-science knowledge. The report of the first part of this study makes up the substance of the interesting volume under review.

There is probably no better book from which to acquire an understanding of the current problems in the child-guidance field and the possible directions in which it might develop. The book does, however, by its nature, use technical terms from psychiatry, social work, psychology, sociology, and anthropology. Although it is not written to appeal to a large audience, it reads well in comparison with many technical books.

This examination of practical or applied fields in the light of the sciences which impinge upon them is a new phase of research. It has many implications for education, but perhaps education has been a forerunner in this kind of activity. For some time schools and their personnel, including the students,

have been studied by sociologists, psychologists, economists, political scientists, and others in great detail. We have even seen special fields develop, such as educational psychology and educational sociology. In spite of this activity, two questions still remain: How much of the existing fund of social-science knowledge can be, and has been, adapted to education? How long does it take to convert this fund to usable currency?

The Russell Sage Foundation has announced its intention of making studies in education and other applied fields similar to this study of psychotherapy. This volume, then, stands as a model for such studies, as well as an outstanding study of child-guidance practice and principles.

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CLIFFORD P. FROEHLICH and JOHN G. DARLEY, *Studying Students: Guidance Methods of Individual Analysis*. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. Pp. xviii+412. $4.25.

A handbook for studying students as individuals, in distinction to considering them as group subjects, fills a felt need in secondary education. Such a book is *Studying Students: Guidance Methods of Individual Analysis*, third in a new "Professional Guidance Series." Although characterized by co-author Dean John G. Darley, of the University of Minnesota Graduate School, as a revision of his popular *Testing and Counseling in the High School Guidance Program* (Science Research Associates, 1943), from the practical standpoint *Studying Students* represents almost an entirely new work. Indeed, Darley reports that he was appalled at the rapid strides in the field of guidance which rendered a revision necessary. Neverthless, often only a single course in tests and measurements has been elected by the prospective teacher. Professor Darley contends that even in this course insufficient attention is paid to the use of observation, personal documents, and interviews and that a need exists for incorporating such methods into the basic framework of teacher education and making explicit their relation to other analytic methods.

Moreover, other conditions in the professional preparation of teachers indicate the need for a special study of guidance methods. "The history of education reveals an increasing awareness of the necessity for understanding students as individuals," Clifford P. Froehlich, University of California, the chief reviser of *Studying Students*, truthfully maintains, and he continues, "All too often [tests and measurements courses] ignored the important role that statistical methods play in the interpretation of data derived from tests as well as nontest methods of individual analysis" (p. ix). Consequently, this book is designed as a basic text or handbook of guidance methods for such individual analysis.

Studying Students is divided into eighteen chapters. A few of the major divisions are identified as "What We Must Know about Students," "The Interview as a Fact-finding Device," "Identifying Interests," and "Appraising Personal Adjustment."

Each chapter is broken into from three to twelve provocative subunits. The headings are written in the teacher's or student's vernacular, for example, "How Is a Percentile Rank Computed?" "Why Should Guidance Workers Use Autobiographies?" "What Can Be Done for the 'Slow' Student?" This feature of the book will render it especially practical and valuable for training programs as well as for regular classroom work.

Another special feature is Froelich and Darley's emphasis, at the outset, on the necessity for thinking in terms of a "basic" set of data which are essential to almost any kind of counseling, guidance, or adjustment program. These are (1) scholastic ability, (2) past achievement, (3) aptitudes and disabilities, (4) interests, (5) personality adjustments, (6) health, and (7) family background. The chapters which follow deal with methods and techniques that can be used to

collect, record, summarize, evaluate, and interpret data in these seven areas.

In this reviewer's opinion, the inclusion of material based on successful experience, in the chapters entitled "Recording Observations," "Measuring Scholastic Ability," "Measuring Scholastic Achievement," "Sociometric Appraisal of Students," and "Determining Special Aptitudes," offers fruitful opportunities for study by prospective teachers.

Numerous charts and forms, a few well-selected references at the foot of each chapter, and a helpful index offer special inducements for using *Studying Students*. Moreover, the unusually clear and understandable style of the book should recommend it for in-service programs and workshop use.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

BAXTER, BERNICE; LEWIS, GERTRUDE M.; and CROSS, GERTRUDE M. *The Role of Elementary Education*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1952. Pp. x+374. $4.55.

BREWER, JOHN M. *Wellsprings of Democracy: Guidance for Local Societies*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, 1952. Pp. xii+232. $4.50.

BURROWS, ALVINA TREUT; FEREBEE, JUNE D.; JACKSON, DORIS C.; and SAUNDERS, DOROTHY O. *They All Want To Write: Written English in the Elementary School*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952 (revised). Pp. xvi+240. $3.50.

CLOUD, ROY W., under the sponsorship of the CALIFORNIA TEACHERS ASSOCIATION. *Education in California: Leaders, Organizations, and Accomplishments of the First Hundred Years*. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1952. Pp. xiv+296. $6.00.

DURLAND, FRANCES CALDWELL. *Creative Dramatics for Children: A Practical Manual for Teachers and Leaders*. Yellow Springs, Ohio: Antioch Press, 1952. Pp. 182. $1.50, paper; $2.75, cloth.

EBY, FREDERICK. *The Development of Modern Education: In Theory, Organization, and Practice*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952 (second edition). Pp. x+720. $6.00.

LANDIS, PAUL H. *Adolescence and Youth: The Process of Maturing*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952 (second edition). Pp. xii+462. $5.00.

MIEL, ALICE, and ASSOCIATES. *Cooperative Procedures in Learning*. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. Pp. x+512. $3.75.

TABA, HILDA; BRADY, ELIZABETH HALL; and ROBINSON, JOHN T. *Intergroup Education in Public Schools: Experimental Programs Sponsored by the Project in Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools: Theory, Practice, and In-service Education*. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1952. Pp. xii+338. $4.00.

WAHLQUIST, JOHN T.; ARNOLD, WILLIAM E.; CAMPBELL, ROALD F.; RELLER, THEODORE L.; and SANDS, LESTER B. *The Administration of Public Education*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. viii+612. $6.00.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

The American Twenties: A Literary Panorama. Edited by JOHN K. HUTCHENS. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1952. Pp. 480. $5.00.

COSGROVE, MARJORIE C., and JOSEY, MARY I. *About You*. A book of information and activities to help you understand yourself

—and others—better and to help you build a happier, more useful life. Family Living Series, Vol. I. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. Pp. 80.

FLOHERTY, JOHN J. *Get That Story: Journalism—Its Lore and Thrills*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1952. Pp. x+150. $2.75.

KOHN, MAX, and STARFIELD, MARTIN J. *Materials and Processes*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1952. Pp. viii+484.

MARY CELESTER, SISTER. *The Story of Our Nation: Its Beginnings and Its Growth*. Revised by SISTER MARIE THERESE MARTIN. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1952 (revised). Pp. x+710+lvi.

PARADIS, MARJORIE B. *One-Act Plays for All-Girl Casts: A Collection of Royalty-free Plays*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc., 1952. Pp. 194. $2.50.

PICK, J. B. *Dictionary of Games, Outdoor, Covered Court and Gymnasium, Indoor: How To Play 458 Games*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, 1952. Pp. 318. $4.75.

They Made America: *General Billy Mitchell, Champion of Air Defense* by ROGER BURLINGAME, pp. viii+212, $2.40; *George Rogers Clark, Soldier in the West* by WALTER HAVIGHURST, pp. viii+216, $2.40. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952.

PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM

Access of Women to Education. XVth International Conference on Public Education Convened by UNESCO and the I.B.E., Geneva, 1952. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [and] International Bureau of Education —Publication No. 141. Paris: UNESCO [and] Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1952. Pp. 208.

"Advance Estimates of Public Elementary and Secondary Schools for the School Year 1952–53." Washington 6: Research Division, National Education Association, 1952. Pp. 18 (processed).

Annotated List of Books for Supplementary Reading, 1953 (Kindergarten-Grade 9). Edited by DOROTHY KAY CADWALLADER. Brooklyn 13: Children's Reading Service, 1953. Pp. 86.

ARMED FORCES INFORMATION AND EDUCATION DIVISION, OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY OF DEFENSE. Armed Forces Talk: No. 421, *Your Reserve Obligations*, pp. 14; No. 423, *Report on World Affairs (July to October, 1952)*, pp. 16; No. 424, *Your Defense against Enemy Propaganda*, pp. 16. Washington 25: Government Printing Office, 1952. $0.05 each.

BENNETT, GEORGE K.; SEASHORE, HAROLD G.; and WESMAN, ALEXANDER G. *Differential Aptitude Tests: Manual*. New York 18: Psychological Corporation, 1952 (second edition). Pp. lv+78.

Children Can Work Independently. Bulletin No. 90 of the Association for Childhood Education International. Washington 5: Association for Childhood Education International, 1952. Pp. 36. $0.75.

Curriculum Aids in Continuation Education. Compiled by LEO JONES. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXI, No. 12. Sacramento, California: California State Department of Education, 1952. Pp. viii+104.

DIRECTOR OF DEFENSE MOBILIZATION. *New Resources Bring New Opportunities*. Seventh Quarterly Report to the President. Washington 25: Government Printing Office, 1952. Pp. iv+44. $0.30.

Discussion Guide for Teachers of English. Chicago 21: National Council of Teachers of English, 1952. Pp. 118. $1.00.

Educational Organization, Administration, and Finance. Review of Educational Research, Vol. XXII, No. 4. Washington 6: American Educational Research Association, 1952. Pp. 273–386. $1.50.

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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

*

SOME COMMENTS ON EDITORIAL POLICIES

Selected References to continue

In the September and October, 1952, issues of the *School Review*, we asked readers to write us whether they would like us to continue to publish the lists of "Selected References" that have been a regular feature of the journal. We did not expect to be snowed under by replies, and we weren't; but letters were received from eighteen States and the District of Columbia. The replies came from persons representing fourteen types of positions of high responsibility in school and college work.

The replies were overwhelmingly in favor of continuing the "Selected References." Typical of the comments are the following.

I find the Selected References helpful in keeping abreast of the field of education and when preparing reading lists for students.

The Selected References are invaluable to me in our work with curriculum committees and classroom teachers. Particularly well covered in your lists, and not found elsewhere, are the references to curriculum bulletins and educational meetings over the country.

This is one of the finest features of your magazine.

We find the annotated references of great value. They furnish a quick index to back numbers of magazines which we have in our professional library, as well as a guide to publications which it would be helpful for us to secure in connection with problems on which we are working.

My hope is that this service can continue in both the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal* for the benefit of school workers, graduate students, and professors. In my judgment this monthly feature is more valuable than the typical magazine article that would occupy the same number of pages.

It seems to me that it is a very adequate way for a teacher to get acquainted with current publications in the field in the shortest possible time.

I find constant use for the section in our library. The film addendum is useful also.

Over the years I have found them interesting, newsy, and informative. Frequently

through them I have learned of ideas, movements, and accomplishments about which I had not known nor which subsequently I have seen as effectively presented.

It would be a great loss to secondary education if you were to discontinue this service to your readers.

In view of these results, we have decided that the Selected References should be continued. We take this opportunity to thank all those who went to the trouble of writing to us. Recently a well-known newspaper writer was asked in a public meeting whether the editors paid any attention to the letters that they receive. He replied that they certainly do and that such letters (except those obviously from crackpots) have an influence quite out of proportion to their number. He said that the editors believe that for every reader who will compose, sign, seal, stamp, and mail a letter, there are dozens of others who think the same but do not write. We hope that this is true in this instance.

While we are on this subject, we should like to express our deep appreciation of the work of the compilers of the references. The lists when published give little indication of the time and effort required to assemble them. The compiler not only must try to locate all significant references in a particular field but must also read them, evaluate them, and, what is perhaps most difficult of all, describe each reference in a very few words. On behalf of the Editorial Committee and, we feel sure, of many readers, we here publicly thank each compiler for this contribution to the field of education.

Reviews of books The book reviews make up another section of the journal which is sometimes not fully appreciated. The writing of a good scholarly review is a difficult assignment. In these days of high publication costs, a review which is no more than a description of a book's content is of questionable value. The reader wants an evaluation also. In many cases the best-qualified reviewers are often personal friends, or at least professional acquaintances, of the authors of the books, and this relationship makes the reviewers reluctant to criticize the works adversely. The *School Review* strives constantly to offer reviews which are prepared by competent persons and which are in themselves scholarly contributions. We are grateful to all those persons in the profession who have contributed reviews, and we are proud of the consistently high quality of this department.

Articles published Only rarely does the Editorial Committee of the *School Review* ask a writer to prepare an article on a particular subject. To be perfectly frank, we wish to avoid the difficult situation that arises if the article, when submitted, is not what we had hoped to get. On the other hand, we welcome unsolicited articles that deal with any phase of secondary education. We prefer those which range from about

2,000 to 4,500 words in length and which either report on a piece of research or present well-thought-out analyses of problems in the field. The Editorial Committee is well disposed toward discussions of controversial issues and would like to receive more good articles of this kind.

Educational monographs For many years the series known as Supplementary Educational Monographs has been published in conjunction with the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal*. The latest in this series are Number 76 (November, 1952), *Improving Reading in All Curriculum Areas*, compiled and edited by William S. Gray, and Number 77 (January, 1953), *Clinical Studies in Reading. II—With Emphasis on Vision Problems*, edited by Helen M. Robinson.

Improving Reading in All Curriculum Areas presents the proceedings of the 1952 annual conference on reading held at the University of Chicago. Papers by nationally known authorities consider the issues faced in improving reading in the content fields; steps involved in school-wide attacks on the problem; methods of promoting growth in and through reading in child-centered and in core curriculums; the attack on reading difficulties and the distinctive problems presented by poor readers; concrete procedures and techniques for increasing reading competence in science, arithmetic and mathematics, social studies, and literature; and administrative responsibilities for reading improvement. The papers deal with problems from the kindergarten level to and including the junior-college grades.

Each year hundreds of conventions and conferences are held, but the proceedings of only a few of these are published and become a substantial part of the literature of a field. The monographs that have come out of the conferences on reading organized by Professor Gray are noteworthy exceptions to this statement. This monograph may be purchased from the University of Chicago Press at $3.25.

Supplementary Educational Monograph 77, *Clinical Studies in Reading. II*, since it is based on experience in diagnosing the difficulties of poor readers and in providing remedial instruction for them, provides keen insights and helpful information concerning reading problems. Because reading difficulty is related to seeing difficulties, emphasis is placed on problems of vision. The publication describes the services of the Reading Clinic of the University of Chicago; reports research studies made by the staff; and provides lists of tests, remedial-reading materials, and trade books useful in work with retarded readers. This monograph may also be obtained from the University of Chicago Press. The price is $3.75.

We conclude this section on editorial policies by pointing out that manuscripts suitable for publication in the monograph series will be wel-

be considered was shown dramatically a year or so ago in one town where a small school was to be closed and students were to be sent to a larger school in a neighboring community. The townspeople surrounded the school building with a cordon of automobiles in an effort to keep their local plant in operation.

The "optimum-size" question often arises in another way. In some cases a school plant originally built to house a certain number of students has become, or promises soon to become, seriously overcrowded. Should the old building be enlarged, or should an entirely new plant be built on another site? If enlargement means merely that additional ordinary classrooms are to be built, and if the site is adequate, the problem is easier to solve. Often, however, the gymnasiums, libraries, cafeterias, music-rooms, and similar facilities in the old building are inadequate. If new space and equipment of these types are to be provided, the initial cost of the addition mounts spectacularly and becomes comparable to that of a new plant. Nevertheless, when this cost is distributed over twenty years by a bond issue and the annual outlay is divided by the number of students to be served, the increase in annual cost per pupil may not be large. In the long run, cost of the building may be a factor of minor importance. Transportation problems and costs are also involved, along with the general availability of the school to the community. In these cases some of the factors relating to the attitudes of students, teachers, and the community may be more influential than cost in determining the ultimate decision.

In many studies of educational problems, data have been gathered from a large number of schools of various sizes. Often the report includes a tabulation showing the frequency distribution of schools by size. The purpose of reporting these facts is to establish the representativeness of the schools in the sample. Thereafter, the data are organized and reported in ways which do not permit conclusions to be drawn in relation to school size as a variable. The solution of the problem under discussion here could be helped materially if the designers of such studies would plan in advance to study and report upon relevant variables as a function of school size. Several examples of this practice may help to emphasize the point.

Principal Findings of the 1947–1948 Basic Studies of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program (Bulletin No. 2) has a section on the "Principal Findings of the Holding Power Study." Data were obtained from twenty-two schools outside the city of Chicago during the period 1947–48. The drop-out rate for each ten students who graduated ranged from 0.6 to 8.0, with a median of 2.7. In the five largest schools the rate was 3.3 for boys and 2.2 for girls. The corresponding rates for the five smallest schools were 3.2 and 2.5, respectively. The bulletin summarizes as follows:

> That [the] wide variation in the holding power of the schools must be accounted for on the basis of factors other than school size is clearly implied by the data. . . . For both sexes, the holding power of the five largest and of the five smallest schools in the study was very closely the same.

The discussion of the "Principal Findings of the Participation in Extra-Class Activities Study," reported in the same bulletin, follows the usual practice of giving a general discussion of the type and size of the schools in the sample but does not classify the data in terms of school size. Consequently, no conclusion about the possible relation of participation to size of school can be drawn.

Two recent issues of the Bulletin of the School of Education of Indiana University report certain interesting data in relation to school size. Both bulletins are by Christian W. Jung and William H. Fox.

The first is on *Extracurricular Activities in Indiana High Schools: The General Program, and Student Participation in School Government* (Vol. XXVIII, No. 3, May, 1952). The sample included 442 schools classified into six groups according to size. Group I included schools with fewer than 100 students, and Group VI included schools with enrolments of 750 and up. Each of the thirty-seven tables in this report can be interpreted in relation to school size.

The data and conclusions of this Indiana bulletin are much too extensive to be commented upon in detail here. On many of the items investigated, the variations among schools of different sizes were not extreme. On a number of important issues, however, the report shows that the larger schools are more likely than are the smaller schools to be in the position favored by modern educational theory. Thus to the question, "Are the objectives or aims of the entire activities program formulated?" 89 per cent of the Group VI schools replied "Yes," but only 56 per cent of the smallest schools gave this answer. To the question, "Are the objectives in written form?" the answer was "Yes" from 50 per cent of the largest schools, but only 13 per cent of the smallest schools gave this answer. The results were reversed, and hence might appear to be favorable to the smaller schools, on a question seeking opinions as to whether students receive as much care and counseling in selecting activities as in selecting curricular offerings. In this case 13 per cent of the largest schools replied "Yes," as compared with 35 per cent of the smallest schools. Perhaps this result could be accounted for on the basis of a much more restricted range of opportunity in the smallest schools to select either type of experience.

Again, in the second bulletin, *Extracurricular Activities in Indiana High Schools: The Club Program* (Vol. XXVIII, No. 4, July, 1952), the data favor the larger schools. Both of these bulletins include copies of the questionnaires on which the studies are based, so that comparable investigations in other states, or by individual schools anywhere, are easily possible.

The investigators comment briefly on possible biases in these studies, stating that probably "such biases would lean toward minimizing the extent of unfavorable aspects in the data." The questionnaires were addressed to school principals, and no indications are given as to who actually filled them out. Hence it is still true that the opinions and attitudes of students, of teachers, and of representative parents and other persons in the communities would be of interest if studied in this way.

The typical high school and its community are seldom faced with the problem of deciding on the optimum size for their school. When the problem does arise, an objectively determined answer would help to avoid costly mistakes that may affect the program for years to come. Comprehensive studies, or many smaller studies so designed that general conclusions may be drawn by considering them together, are needed so that wise decisions can be made.

The Mathematical Needs of Engineers—and Others

The article on "The University of Illinois List of Mathematical Competencies" which appears on later pages of this issue of the *School Review* has implications for the high-school curriculum that warrant additional discussion. The writer of these comments is quite ready to agree in general with the major theses of Professor Meserve's article. In particular, the writer is prepared to defend the following four propositions:

1. The traditional method of stating prerequisites for college work in specialized fields in terms of units of required credit in certain courses is unsatisfactory.
2. Admission to college and placement in college courses should be determined by modern evaluation techniques.
3. Such evaluation, in turn, requires a much more precise formulation of the necessary competencies than has hitherto been available.
4. The formulation of a satisfactory statement of competencies should be a co-operative project involving the several groups of persons concerned, including not only experts in the subject-matter fields, in curriculum theory, and in evaluation but also representatives of the teachers who are responsible for developing the competencies.

As Professor Meserve's article makes clear, the work of the Illinois committee is a significant forward step in the direction indicated by these four propositions. There is, however, much more to be done, and implicit in the work thus far accomplished is a threat to the future development of the curriculum in mathematics.

The Illinois list represents an advance in specificity beyond the statement of requirements in terms of course names. The usual form of statement ("Algebra, 2 units; Plane Geometry, 1 unit; Solid Geometry, $\frac{1}{2}$ unit; Trigonometry, $\frac{1}{2}$ unit") permits extreme variations in topic selection, emphasis, and thoroughness of treatment from class to class and from school to school. A more definitive, up-to-date guide is needed.

One of the chief weaknesses of the

Illinois list is that, as it stands, it is no more than a list of topics. It leaves the behavioral aspect of the objectives much less clearly specified. The bulletin on *Mathematical Needs of Prospective Students in the College of Engineering of the University of Illinois* states: "this section lists topics in secondary mathematics, an understanding of which is considered to be indispensable." Although many items in the list use the term *concept* explicitly ("concept of similarity"), all involve concepts implicitly. Numerous items suggest that, in addition to the understanding of the concepts, the behavior desired also includes some *skill*. Until the desired level or depth of understanding of the concepts and the necessary degrees of skill are more precisely defined, teachers in the high schools will be unable to determine how much emphasis is to be given a topic. Professor Meserve recognizes this fact in his article, and he points out that the sample test items supplied in the supplementary bulletin are of help in this respect. Still, a careful analysis and exposition of the behavior desired would add greatly to the ultimate effectiveness of the project.

Another commendable feature of the University of Illinois list is that the topics are not grouped under traditional course names. Teachers are free to organize the learning experiences into general or "integrated" courses, introducing topics from algebra, geometry, and trigonometry as problem needs or the organizing scheme suggests them. The desirability of working out satisfactory integrated courses has long been recognized, and in recent years progress in this direction has been notable. That the topics in the Illinois list remain unstructured in terms of courses is especially remarkable for another reason. Throughout the bulletin and in Professor Meserve's paper, there seems to be a tacit assumption, namely, that the *college* curriculum in mathematics prerequisite to the calculus will continue to be organized into courses on college algebra, trigonometry, and analytic geometry. This assumption may be valid in the case of engineering students at the University of Illinois, but it is not consistent with a durable trend toward the reorganization of mathematics courses at the Freshman level in many colleges.

The fact is that the topics in the University of Illinois list represent the traditional approach to mathematics in secondary schools and colleges. The writer has heard the list spontaneously criticized by a number of mathematicians of the highest professional standing. Although these men cannot be named here, it should be noted that none of them is a resident of Illinois or is associated with the University of Chicago. Briefly, their criticism is to the effect that the list seems to ignore the point of view of modern mathematics. They believe that traditional courses put too much emphasis upon certain topics, of which the solution of oblique triangles and the law of tangents in trigonometry

may be cited as examples. Meanwhile, fundamental concepts, such as *class* or *set*, and modern techniques, such as those involved in statistical studies, are neglected. Those who have this point of view are undoubtedly concerned with the problem of the proper preparation of pure mathematicians and of men able to apply mathematics, not only in engineering, but also in many other fields.

There is no question that the mathematics curriculum in high schools and junior colleges should give students otherwise qualified an adequate preparation for entering modern engineering curriculums in universities. At the same time, the needs of this important but specialized field should not unduly influence the total program. The project under discussion here, and others like it, should be so extended as to insure that the mathematical needs of *all* prospective college students are validly specified. In the meantime, high-school teachers of mathematics should use discretion in pointing to the list to justify the traditional selection and organization of topics as unquestionably suitable for all students.

Centennial Anniversary in St. Louis

The first public high school west of the Mississippi River was opened in St. Louis just one hundred years ago. On February 11 a meeting of prominent educators, civic leaders, and public officers is being held to celebrate the centennial of Central High School. Later in the spring a "Festival of Progress in the St. Louis Public Secondary Schools" will also commemorate the event.

Today nearly all boys and girls take it for granted that they may attend a public high school—that is, if they live in the United States. They and their parents may decide that a private school is more desirable, but the decision is theirs to make, and a public high school is almost always accessible. It is hard to realize that this is not true in most of the other countries of the world. It is also hard to realize that one hundred years ago there were no public high schools in the United States west of the Mississippi, and not many in the eastern part of the country. St. Louis is wisely capitalizing the opportunity to remind the public of the significant role that public secondary education has played in the development of our country. A similar opportunity awaits thousands of other high schools as they approach their hundredth anniversaries. On second thought, however, a question arises: Why wait? They should do it today.

Educational TV

The newspapers and the magazines are filled with caustic criticisms of commercial television programs. At the same time, nearly everyone agrees that, in the future, television can make a tremendous contribution toward achieving educational goals. Nevertheless, educational

television is having a struggle to get going.

The Wilmington (Delaware) Board of Education, for example, asked twenty-six community groups whether they would be interested in pooling efforts and resources to launch an educational TV station. The replies were so disappointing that the Board of Education decided to postpone all TV plans for the time being. In Chicago the major universities, colleges, and museums banded together to try to finance a television station. To date they have made little progress. The situation has been well summarized by Frieda Hennock, member of the Federal Communications Commission, in an article on "Basic TV Facts for Education" which appeared in the *Journal of the AER* (Association for Education by Radio) for November, 1952. She writes:

> Given the merit of and need for educational TV, the fundamental question facing education is how it may realize the vast potential of television. The true answer is to get these stations built and on the air as soon as possible. To help you in this endeavor, the Federal Communications Commission has set aside and reserved 242 TV channels throughout the nation for noncommercial educational purposes. But this action provides only the opportunity; local action in these communities is necessary to take advantage of it. This is up to the educational interests in each community and to the many cultural institutions and civic agencies of all kinds who may co-operate with education in the building and operation of these stations. Their failure to do so—even their undue delay—will mean an irreparable loss to all of the people of these communities and thus to our national well-being.

It should be remembered that, while the reservation of channels for education was for an indefinite period, applications to amend the "Table of Assignments" may be filed after June 2, 1953, with the Federal Communications Commission. Many educators fear that pressure from commercial interests will result in loss of the reserved channels. Moreover, stations on these channels must operate on a completely noncommercial basis, which means that they cannot sell part of their time in order to finance educational programs during the other part. This is undoubtedly a wise regulation. The temptation to sell time for advertising would lead to many compromising situations which would, in the long run, diminish the educational influence of the station.

The cost of a TV station is said to be from $200,000 upwards. Few educational institutions are in a position to allocate funds of this magnitude to the building of television facilities. It is encouraging, however, to note a story in the *Chicago Daily News* on December 23, 1952, which reported that educational stations are under construction in ten cities and that nine others have filed applications with the Commission. The same article announced a plan for financing a Chicago station by selling shares of stock in a nonprofit corporation to citizens at a price of $2.00 per share. The number of shares sold to any individual or organization would be limited. The plan, as drawn up by William Howlett, consultant to the

National Committee for Educational Television, would be put in operation by an executive board composed of representatives of interested groups.

This plan, if it actually becomes operative, may save the day for educational television in Chicago and elsewhere. Through a very small investment, a citizen can make available, not only to himself, but to others, educational opportunities that would otherwise be restricted to a privileged few. Once the financial problem is solved, others will arise. Worth-while programs must be prepared, and viewers must be trained to be discriminating in their selections. The schools should begin now to prepare for a stellar role in this phase of educational TV.

The successful outcome of the campaign a year ago to insure the allocation of TV channels to education and the struggle since then to move forward and establish stations have perhaps tended to obscure a more fundamental issue. Was the action of the Commission as much in the public interest as it should have been? Commissioner Hennock did not think so, and she filed a dissent to the Commission's Sixth Report and Order referred to above. For a careful discussion of this issue, readers may wish to consult *Vision in Television: The Origins and Potentialities of Educational Television*, a little book by Hazel Cooley published late in 1952 by the Channel Press (1440 Broadway, New York 18). It presents in an appendix the full text of Commissioner Hennock's dissent. The price of the book is $2.00.

Scheduling Driver Education

Driver-education enrolments appear to be leveling off after a period of rapid growth. One of the major difficulties in this unfortunate situation probably arises in connection with the awarding of "credit" for this work. Many students are able to acquire the necessary items of information, attitudes, and skills in less than a semester of instruction. Courses that involve less than a semester are difficult to fit into a traditional organization of the high-school curriculum

Evidence to support these conclusions is not hard to find. An example is provided by the following quotation from the October 31, 1952, issue of the *Quarterly Bulletin* published by the Institute of Transportation and Traffic Engineering of the University of California. The statements are said to be based on data from 167 schools in California.

> (1) Most schools have a qualified teacher but one-sixth (mostly smaller schools) do not. (2) Only one-third of the schools offer driver education as a separate course. (3) In a fifth of the schools the course runs a full semester; in half, six weeks; in another fifth, less than ten hours. (4) Although the course has to be scheduled in the ninth or tenth grade if most students are to be reached before they attain driving age of sixteen, one-fourth the schools offer it in the eleventh or twelfth grade. (5) More than half the schools omit behind-the-wheel instruction, mainly because of cost and difficulties of programing.

One partial solution of this problem for some schools is to offer the training on Saturdays, giving less attention to the "credit" angle, and more to the role of the school in meeting adolescent and community needs. Many high-school students could and would arrange for instruction on Saturday, and most of the programing difficulties would then evaporate.

In Grand Forks, North Dakota, the high school offered driver education to adults. Superintendent Elroy H Schroeder and Instructor Verl L. Clark, writing in the *North Dakota Teacher* for December, 1952, on "An Experiment in Driver Education," have this to say:

> In the summer of 1952 a new experiment was attempted. Driver education was offered to adults in the city. The superintendent and the instructor agreed mutually that one announcement would be made in the local newspaper and that the twenty hours of driving in the dually controlled car would be given for $20.00. The School Board would furnish the car and car insurance, and the $20.00 would be used for compensating the instructor for his time and expense. It was hoped that a sufficient number would enrol to give the instructor two classes as part-time work while he was attending the university. The one newspaper announcement brought out almost fifty requests for the course. Twenty were actually trained. More would have been trained if a qualified driver and an an additional car had been available. This is evidence of the tremendous interest that is latent in a community.

If adults are to be given driver training in the summer, why cannot it also be given then or on Saturdays to the young people?

University of Chicago Tea

The Department of Education of the University of Chicago invites friends and alumni of the University who will be at the meeting of the American Association of School Administrators in Atlantic City to attend a tea on February 17, 1953, from four to six o'clock in the afternoon. The tea will be given in the Ozone Room of the Hotel Dennis.

Maurice L. Hartung

Who's Who for February

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by Maurice L. Hartung, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago. Clyde E. Curran, associate professor of education at Suffolk University, Boston, Massachusetts, tells why general education is necessary, defines its scope, describes the types of persons who possess it, and sets forth the schools' responsibility in providing it. Bruce E. Meserve, assistant professor of mathematics at the University of Illinois, writes about the new statement of college-entrance requirements in mathematics developed by the University of Illinois. Editha Luecke, professor of home economics at North Texas State College, Denton, Texas, gives the results of a study in which the social adjustment of college students was found to improve, as measured by objective tests, after a course in social fundamentals. Ray H. Simpson, professor of educational psychology at the University of Illinois, and Kenneth L. Camp, supervisor of dramatics at Horton Watkins High School, La Due, Missouri, interpret the responses to a questionnaire which was sent to parents to determine to what extent the school was affecting out-of-school reading. The selected references in the various subject fields have been prepared by the following persons: Dora V. Smith, professor of education, University of Minnesota; Robert E. Keohane, assistant professor of social sciences, Shimer College, Mount Carroll, Illinois; Edna E. Eisen, professor of geography, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio; Wilbur L. Beauchamp, professor of the teaching of science, University of Chicago; George E. Hawkins, administrative assistant and chairman of the department of mathematics at Lyons Township High School and Junior College, La Grange, Illinois; Francis F. Powers, dean of the College of Education of the University of Washington; and Kenneth D. Norberg, associate professor of education and coordinator of audio-visual services at Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California.

Reviewers of books John W. Devor, professor of education at Asbury College, Wilmore, Kentucky. G. P. Cahoon, professor of Education at Ohio State University.

WHAT IS GENERAL EDUCATION?

CLYDE E. CURRAN
Suffolk University, Boston, Massachusetts

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GENERAL EDUCATION is important today for two predominant reasons, both of which stem from contemporary social conditions. The first concerns vocational training; the second, specialization.

ADEQUATE VOCATIONAL TRAINING REQUIRES GENERAL EDUCATION

The amount of skill required to perform most jobs in our modern industrial society is decreasing. Machines now do the work that men formerly had to do. While vocations demand less training and experience and yield fewer personal satisfactions, successful living requires more and more insight. Over the relatively short period of about fifty years, social conditions have changed so rapidly that the importance of education for competent living supersedes the importance of preparation in specific vocational techniques. The average worker may use little skill on the job, but, to fulfil adequately his prerogative as voter and citizen, he must command a shrewd judgment.

Rapidly changing social conditions have also thrown added burdens upon marriage and parenthood. The high divorce rate testifies to this fact. To extract expanding love and companionship from family life, to turn these delicately tuned personal relations from chaos into the deepest of human satisfactions, imposes a gigantic responsibility upon men and women.

The use of machines has given us more leisure time, but to capitalize on this condition, to transform idle hours into constructive pleasure, poses another problem. Although today's vocations give workers more leisure time and demand less skill, they yield fewer satisfactions.

The worker lives in a complicated world where living fully as citizen, partner in marriage, and parent, while reaping the fullest pleasures from our culture, calls for a broad education—a general education.

What have schools done about this condition? Until the turn of the present century, most secondary schools concentrated on a college-preparatory curriculum. From about 1900 until the present time, educators worked with the problem of building suitable vocational schools. To keep pace with the growing demands of a rapidly expanding industrial country, schools needed to give instruction in industrial arts. Compulsory attendance laws complicated the situation further by forcing into secondary schools a

widely diversified group of young people who had previously gone to work. They wanted training that would fit them for jobs in industry.

Training in industrial arts required that machine shops, printing shops, and electrical, sheet-metal, and carpentry shops be added to the school plant. By the time sufficient money had been raised for these additions and most up-and-coming communities had provided facilities for giving training in journeyman crafts, new conditions in industry made the training provided by secondary schools practically useless on the job. Surveys of industries showed that less and less skill was required as more complicated machines were used. Vocational training that focused almost entirely upon teaching specific mechanical skills, the kind provided in secondary schools throughout the country, wasted the time of the teachers and students, for it did not provide the training needed to find and keep a job.

Today employers in industry seek well-rounded young people. Men who do the hiring want graduates of high schools and colleges who take an interest in the affairs of their community, who get along with people, who read well and have wide interests, who have an understanding of our cultural heritage, who have the good sense to adjust to the conditions under which they work, and who know how to think reflectively. Specific training in the mechanics of business and industry will no longer suffice. Adequate vocational training today demands a general education.

GENERAL EDUCATION REQUIRED BY INCREASING SPECIALIZATION

Specialization is the second social condition that requires schools to give a general education. The specialization which typifies modern society develops individuals with a partial vision of the world. They see the panorama of current events, not in relation to an integrated pattern with roots growing out of history, but from the frame of their particular specialty. Doctors, scientists, or workers on assembly lines develop attitudes and dispositions that reflect their specialties. Workers and employers, for example, approach questions of policy from different backgrounds. Thus they find themselves ensnared in perpetual disputes. Professional men live in a world that tends to give them not a unified and complete understanding of their total community but a slant commensurable with their specialty. All of us, because of the need for specialization in our culture today, live in little worlds of our own, which have a particular set of customs. This tendency for barriers to grow between people because of the work they do and the way they live is a serious threat to our democracy.

Whether a man works as a banker or a laborer, a scientist or an automobile mechanic, whether he is a high-school graduate or has advanced degrees from universities, everyone in a democracy has a stake in what happens to others. In a democracy it is absolutely essential that people develop areas of understanding about which

(regardless of some drastic differences of opinion) all can say, "We hold this in common." Men widely separated in education, in economic position, in religious beliefs, in political affiliations can develop areas of common understanding. A democratic community cannot hold together without this integration.

Men are not endowed at birth with the ability to understand and work out common destinies together. Democracy is not a gift; it is a process, the operation of which requires tremendous effort. A large share of the burden of developing understanding falls into the hands of teachers. They must seek to teach youth, regardless of differences in backgrounds, how to understand one another and how to build strong community ties. This requires a general education.

WHAT PERSONS WITH GENERAL EDUCATION ARE LIKE

What qualities of behavior does a person with a general education show? He understands and cherishes the people with whom he associates. He satisfies his physical wants in a way that brings satisfaction to himself, his family, and his friends. In his acts affecting local, national, and international events, he shows extraordinary balance and insight. His every move is marked with enthusiasm. A burning curiosity continuously takes him into wonderful adventures of the mind and spirit.

Where do we find such people? In every walk of life. The pity is that there are so few. And even more pitiful, the forces which seem to influence their development have been left to chance. The ranks of those with general educations are filled by people from every occupational and educational level; even many with no formal education find room here. They seem to acquire their breadth of personal development by accident and often without the aid of schools.

KIND OF LEARNING NECESSARY FOR GENERAL EDUCATION

Does reading classics necessarily give an individual the attributes spoken of? Certainly not! Just look at the hundreds of college professors who have absorbed great books but who have none of the preceding characteristics. Despite great erudition, their way of life has narrowed their horizons. On the other hand, hundreds of individuals walk the streets every day who have not read one classic but who have all the qualities of the generally educated. What does this mean? The answer is obvious and simple, and practically every poet and sage has pointed it out. The answer is that we learn the way to wisdom or foolishness through living, that we become what we are through the kinds of experiences we have.

If educators wish to control human development, they must, then, learn how to analyze the intricacies of human experience and how to provide experiences that shape human personality toward desirable ends. To suppose that a book or a set of books or any other form of verbalization, no matter how wonderful, automatically

invokes desired responses, overlooks the principles of how people grow, develop, and learn. The assumption underlying the notion that verbalizations spontaneously enter into human behavior must proceed from the conviction that people learn through the process of passive reception.

But learning is a dynamic affair. The backlog of personality traits that people have developed largely determines the effect that an idea or a book will have upon them. More often than not, new ideas, presented verbally, even when understood intellectually, do not become effective in human behavior. There are several reasons for this: the individual has not had sufficient familiarity with the idea to adopt it temperamentally, or he has dispositions that reject the idea, or the idea remains verbal because it is no part of a vital experience. In addition to the total personality of the individual involved, the situation under which contact with the book or idea is made shades the kind of experiences undergone. An individual may come into contact with books and ideas which his background would enable him to understand and incorporate into his personality, but there may be situational difficulties that prevent him from having positive experiences with them. Such difficulties may include a wide variety of physical and psychological disturbances, such as noise, fatigue, bad air, distracting colors, heat, boredom, and anxiety.

Furthermore, because of misunderstanding about the place that books really take in pupils' lives, the tendency in school is to replace vital experience with verbalizations. The place of books depends upon the kinds of experiences that students have had with them. The treatment of Shakespeare in many high schools and colleges serves as a good example of how ineffective are our methods of working books into the lives of students. The young people undergo such unpleasant experiences with these plays that any desire to read books of the so-called "cultural" variety is killed. Many teachers insist that students memorize long, pithy passages of Shakespeare's plays and repeat endless facts about plot and characters. If the student succeeds in performing these exercises with dexterity, he receives an A and the nod of assurance that lets him know he has done good work, although this experience may have instilled in him such a loathing of literature that he will never voluntarily pick up another book of this kind.

METHODS NECESSARY FOR GENERAL EDUCATION

What, then, is general education? Educators have been heading the wrong way when they devote their time almost solely to the organization and reorganization of curriculum content. They cannot be too careful in their organization of curriculums, but this alone will not give students the broad insights needed for successful living in contemporary society. Edu-

cators have been searching for the set of subjects or the arrangement of subjects that will give students broad and penetrating understandings. By now they realize that subjects alone cannot do this.

The answer to the question, "What is general education?" concerns method as well as content—but not method in the narrow sense of devising teaching techniques to transmit subject matter to students. This idea is a counterpart of the notion that, once educators have found the right content, their problems are solved. The methodology needed by teachers today must take them into conditions under which people learn and develop —into the scientific study of human behavior, especially the generative force of conduct, namely, the emotions. Situations that psychologists, sociologists, biologists, and philosophers have studied for years must become a part of teachers' backgrounds. From such disciplines they must build generalizations and skills for analyzing the personalities, backgrounds, and experiences of students. They must understand the dynamic forces of life that shape people. They must become applied scientists of human relations.

In addition to studying the effect that human experience has on personality, educators must know how to provide educative experiences that will take student growth toward desired goals. What makes this particularly difficult is the place of the student in the educative situation. The student does the experiencing, and the propensity for participating in one rather than another shade of meaning connected with an experience depends upon his total personality. The student's desires, habits, and attitudes, which have developed through his contact with life, open or close the possibility that specific situations will have effects upon him. Furthermore, teachers enter classrooms with personality facets that often conflict with the backgrounds of the students. Thus teachers become immersed in personal relations which they, too, must often modify. This conflict complicates the educative scene even further.

When teachers endeavor to stimulate educative experiences, they cannot simply impose a set of materials, objects, or ideas upon the student and expect to obtain results. They must know the student and the kinds of experiences that he is having in the classroom and the effect that these have upon his personality. Then follows the difficult process of continuously providing situations that will shape his personality in desired directions. The error made by many educators is to overlook the simple fact that the student is the focal point.

EVALUATING THE GENERAL-EDUCATION PROGRAM

Keeping constant check upon the results of in-school experiences is one of the most significant phases of method. Teachers must possess accurate evidence about the effectiveness

of what they do. They must know whether their ways of handling experience get the desired results. Despite the thousands of tests in use today, teachers are almost completely at sea on this score. They do not know whether they are getting results.

To check this point, ask teachers or administrators of high schools and colleges what books recent graduates read and enjoy and why they read those books, what occupations they follow and what part the school has had in preparing them for these occupations, which graduates are married and what the school has done to make this intricate human relationship lasting and worthy, and so on. You will find that these questions will embarrass educators simply because they do not know the answers and because they are part of a system that makes practically no attempt to find the answers. Yet schools claim to equip youth in all these and in many more practical areas of living. One of the most essential and neglected phases of method is evaluating the results of teaching in the light of practical accomplishments.

Studying the students' social and psychological backgrounds, providing educative experiences that will further student growth, and continually checking to see in what direction school experiences take the students constitute the outline of the method that teachers should follow.

THE PLACE OF THE TEACHER IN GENERAL EDUCATION

But what has this to do with general education? The very way people live, the culture that nurtures them, are shot through with forces that tend to narrow their lives. If we examine almost any section of our culture, we see restricting and narrowing influences at work. The hundreds of prejudices that people harbor; occupational specialization that tends to isolate; widespread discrepancies in values and in religious orientation; crime; delinquency; distrust; the approach to art, literature, and music that either develops the snobbish aesthete or leads to boredom; the conditions underlying anxiety—all these take their toll of human personality by pressing it into restricting confines. Study of these forces constitutes part of the elaborate method needed to improve teaching. Providing general education, however, takes more than mere knowledge in the scientific sense, although this is an essential first step. Education, by the very meaning of the word, signifies desire for moral improvement. Thus we who educate commit ourselves to the task of trying to improve conditions. Desire for human betterment, supplemented by a realistic insight into what stands in the way of educational fulfilment and by a working method for overcoming the obstacles, places in the hands of teachers the tools for providing general education.

THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS LIST OF MATHEMATICAL COMPETENCIES

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TWO CONDITIONS in Illinois make it desirable to reconsider the mathematical preparation of prospective college students. A group of educators has questioned the effectiveness of present methods of stating entrance requirements for college. At the same time, the College of Engineering of the University of Illinois, in its efforts to keep pace with the scientific advances of our time, is striving to have Freshmen start their college mathematics with analytic geometry. These conditions are merely local manifestations of two basic conditions that are common throughout the country: the desire of many educators to know exactly what competencies their students need and the increasing need for mathematical competencies in the applications of scientific advances in our culture.

How should mathematics teachers react to these needs? Should we teach only the mathematical concepts that every student needs, or should we try to impart a thorough mastery of elementary mathematics, including some of the concepts of calculus? Neither extreme appears desirable for *all* students. Teachers, administrators, and scientists can look forward to mutually satisfactory programs in elementary- and secondary-school mathematics if all concerned with meeting the needs of the students co-operate in planning the programs. This will take time and considerable study. We must determine the competencies needed by all types of students, and we must determine when the students are ready for, and in need of, those competencies.

BACKGROUND OF THE PRESENT LIST

Two years ago the Steering Committee of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program proposed the elimination of the unit credit system of stating college-entrance requirements. This committee, which has co-operated with the Illinois Secondary-School Principals' Association and thirty-two other state-wide professional and lay organizations, is sponsored by the state superintendent of public instruction. A bulletin prepared by the Steering Committee quoted from an earlier report of the Eight-Year Study:

> The assumption that preparation for the liberal arts college depends upon the study of certain prescribed subjects in the secondary school is no longer tenable. . . .

> The conclusion must be drawn . . . that the assumption upon which school and college relations have been based in the past must be abandoned. . . .
>
> To move ahead, schools must have encouragement from colleges. To give that encouragement, colleges must abandon their present admissions policy.[1]

The committee accordingly recommended a new college-admissions policy based primarily on tests. For *general college work*, the following five criteria were proposed: (1) score on a scholastic aptitude test, (2) score on a test of critical reading, (3) score on a test of writing skill, (4) score on a simple mathematical test, and (5) evidence that the student has an intellectual interest and some effective study habits.

For specialized curriculums which begin in the Freshman year of college, certain other specified competencies may be required. For example, mathematical competencies may be required for students of engineering. The high schools are urged to provide means for students to acquire these competencies prior to graduation, and the colleges are urged to determine the attainment of the competencies by means of standard tests rather than to accept credits in specified courses. When small high schools are unable to provide specialized courses to meet the needs of their graduates, "the colleges are urged to make provisions for the basic specialized work with as little handicap to the student as possible."

At the University of Illinois about one-tenth of the Freshmen who enter the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences have had less than two years of high-school mathematics and must take a course in basic inathematics before graduation. However, there are two good reasons why public school teachers should not complacently assume that college-preparatory students can learn all the mathematics they need after they arrive at college: First, in recent years only about one out of four of the students who entered with less than two years of high-school mathematics has been able to overcome the handicap of inadequate preparation and to complete college training. Second, the postponement of mathematical training noticeably extends the number of years that many students must spend in college. Thus, inadequate high-school preparation for college reduces the probability that the student can obtain a college degree and increases the financial investment and the amount of time required to earn a degree.

The new admission requirements were not proposed by the University of Illinois and have not been accepted by the University of Illinois. However, recommendations formulated by a group of professional educators can-

[1] Wilford M. Aikin, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study*, pp. 118–22. Adventure in American Education, Vol. I. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942.

Quoted in *New College Admission Requirements Recommended*, pp. 10, 11. Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, Bulletin No. 9. Circular Series A, No. 51. Springfield, Illinois: Vernon L. Nickell, Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1950.

not be ignored. Also, the Federation of Illinois Colleges, an association of private colleges, has approved the recommendations, at least in principle.

If the colleges cannot expect entering Freshmen to have any particular course or sequence of courses in high school, what subject-matter content can they expect? The colleges must specify the competencies that college-preparatory students need and must consider with the secondary schools the problem of meeting these needs.

In addition to the recommendations of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, a second force at the University of Illinois makes desirable a reconsideration of the mathematical preparation for college. The College of Engineering is striving to keep abreast of the scientific advances of our time while continuing to offer a Bachelor's degree for four years of college work. It is well known that in many engineering courses successful work is dependent upon the mathematical preparation of the students. A large number of entering students have had four years of high-school mathematics and are ready to begin their college mathematics with analytic geometry. Others must spend a semester taking college algebra and trigonometry. It was felt that many of these students would prepare themselves for analytic geometry before coming to college if they knew what topics they should master. Students who have mastered the competencies in the University of Illinois list are able to start their college mathematics with analytic geometry and then to take college physics concurrently with calculus the second semester of their Freshman year. Considerable time can be saved in this way. All engineering curriculums at the University of Illinois have been revised, effective September, 1953, to start with analytic geometry in the first semester of the Freshman year.

From the point of view of the teacher of mathematics, the two conditions that I have mentioned have a common significance. Each requires that we know what competencies the students actually need. The University of Illinois list of competencies is a start on this problem. The procedure used by the committee to develop the Illinois list has been described elsewhere,[2] but a summary follows.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE LIST

The committee was organized about three years ago. It consisted of two members of the faculty of the College of Engineering, two from the College of Education, and two from the Department of Mathematics. After considering other studies and interviewing about 150 students and staff members, the committee formulated a list of topics based primarily upon the mathematical needs in college courses. This list was circulated as a check list to all staff members of the College of Engineering who were teaching Fresh-

[2] Kenneth B. Henderson and Kern Dickman, "Minimum Mathematical Needs of Prospective Students in a College of Engineering," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLV (February, 1952), 89–93.

man courses and to a selected group of staff members of the Department of Mathematics. Next, a revised list was circulated to the mathematics teachers of nine high schools. Members of the committee met with the mathematics departments of most of these schools and discussed the list of topics in detail. The final list reflected the excellent suggestions of the secondary-school teachers. This list was approved by the Policy and Development Committee of the College of Engineering and was published in a University of Illinois Bulletin.[3]

The University of Illinois list contains ninety-seven topics and includes such concepts as the following:

Fundamental operations, including mental calculations with integers, common fractions, decimals, and mixed numbers

Concept of percentage, including per cent of increase and decrease

Concept of ratio and proportion, of measurement and standard units, of an approximate number, precision of a measurement, significant digits, and rounding-off

Addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of signed numbers, polynomials, algebraic fractions, radicals, and complex numbers

Concept of a plane angle, dihedral angle, congruence, similarity, symmetry, locus, definition, postulate, and theorem

Thirty of the topics, those commonly associated with college algebra and trigonometry, are designated by asterisks. The unmarked list is a minimum list for students who plan to start their college mathematics with college algebra and trigonometry or any other courses requiring at least two years of high-school mathematics. The complete list is for students who wish to start with analytic geometry or any other course having college algebra and trigonometry as prerequisites. There is also a list of thirteen supplementary topics that are not indispensable but are recommended if there is time to cover them. We are very pleased when our students have some mastery of the supplementary topics, but we are primarily concerned with a thorough coverage of the topics on the minimum list.

All topics on the University of Illinois list are covered in the traditional college-preparatory courses of most four-year mathematics programs. Thus we are not asking for additional subject matter. Rather, we are trying to specify what we mean by four years of high-school mathematics. The colleges are interested in the competencies of the prospective student—his ability to perform mathematical operations and to understand and apply mathematical concepts. Traditional courses, when properly taught, satisfy these needs.

STUDENTS TO WHOM LIST APPLIES

Specifically, which students would profit by a study of the topics in the University of Illinois list? Starting in September, 1953, all entering Freshmen in the College of Engineering, the

[3] *Mathematical Needs of Prospective Students at the College of Engineering of the University of Illinois*. University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XLIX, No. 18. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1951.

Reviewed in "Aids to Teaching," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLV (October, 1952), 462.

agricultural-engineering curriculum of the College of Agriculture, or the chemical-engineering curriculum of the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences at the University of Illinois must have these competencies in order to enter the University of Illinois without deficiencies. Students in mathematics, chemistry, physics, and in all curriculums requiring a course in college chemistry or physics must acquire these competencies in secondary school or complete them in college. Curriculums leading to a degree in nursing and premedical curriculums usually require chemistry.

Many other students would find knowledge of the topics in the Illinois list a real asset. The Educational Policies Commission has recommended that students with high intelligence quotients be required to take four years of high-school mathematics, including some calculus if possible.[4] With the exception of students whose abilities lie primarily in music or art, these bright students tend to go into situations in which the four years of mathematics will be very useful. For example, a friend of mine recently arrived on the University of Illinois campus to work on a doctorate in zoölogy. Although she has a Master's degree, she must take college algebra, trigonometry, and two other semesters of undergraduate mathematics before taking physical chemistry. In general, competency in mathematics will be a real asset to students in the biological and physical sciences and in curriculums such as economics, agriculture, and psychology, in which statistics is used as a tool. Graduate programs in these fields now require mathematics. The present trend will certainly result later in undergraduate needs for mathematics. Meanwhile, any student with the additional preparation in mathematics will have a real advantage.

It should be emphasized that the University of Illinois list of topics applies to all these groups of students, not merely to engineers. The unmarked list applies to all students in curriculums with college algebra as a Freshman course. The complete list applies to all students who wish to start their college programs with any course having college algebra and trigonometry as prerequisites.

STUDY OF EXISTING PROGRAMS NEEDED

The next question and the basic question is: How do the needs of these students affect our mathematics programs?

One of the major problems that the University of Illinois list of topics has created for the high schools appears to be: What degree of mastery or depth of understanding of concepts and what degree of facility in formal manipulation is implied? The development of the minimum list of topics, the development of tests to measure the competencies attained by the student

[4] Educational Policies Commission, *Education of the Gifted*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1950.

and to indicate the thoroughness expected in covering the topics, and the development of an experimental curriculum at the University High School —these are the principal steps that we are taking at the University of Illinois to help answer this question. We have issued a five-page supplement to our bulletin on *Mathematical Needs of Prospective Students at the College of Engineering*, describing the multiple-choice, machine-scored tests that we shall use to measure the thoroughness with which the topics in the minimum list have been covered. There are forty sample test questions in this supplement, and it is hoped that they will give an indication of the degree of mastery that is desired.

The College of Engineering, the College of Education, the Department of Mathematics, and the University High School are co-operating in the development of an experimental mathematical curriculum for Grades IX through XII. At the University High School we are seeking to develop a mathematics program of such a nature that the first year, or preferably the first two years, may be taken as terminal courses in mathematics and the complete program may be taken to satisfy the needs of prospective engineers. It is assumed that the mathematical needs for prospective engineers are essentially the same as the needs for students preparing for study in any area requiring courses in collegiate mathematics. We plan to specify, at least for our own use, the aspects of each topic in the minimum list that we shall include in each of Grades IX, X, XI, and XII. These topics and those for students who plan to terminate their mathematical training at the end of the ninth or tenth year will form the basis for courses that we shall offer at the University High School.

The mathematical competencies that are needed by terminal students must also be determined. The Illinois list of mathematical competencies represents a start in the determination of competencies needed by college-preparatory students. There is still a great deal to be done in specifying these competencies more exactly. Eventually, the lists of competencies will make it possible to reorganize secondary-school programs in mathematics without causing either colleges or parents undue concern.

Another major problem is: How can the high-school mathematics program be organized to satisfy most effectively the needs of the students?

The freedom to reorganize the curriculum is highly desirable for the secondary schools. The colleges are interested in the competencies of prospective students, but the organization of the secondary-school mathematics program should be a responsibility of the secondary schools. Most colleges are satisfied with the present college-preparatory courses when they are well taught, but it is certainly conceivable that there may exist more effective organizations of high-school mathematics. Indeed, one of the outstanding present trends appears to be

the removal of some of the artificial barriers separating algebra and geometry. Why should mathematics be compartmentalized into a year of algebra, a year of geometry, a half-year of algebra, a half-year of solid geometry, a half-year of college algebra, and a half-year of trigonometry? Why not use geometric concepts to aid in the visualization of algebraic processes? Why not use algebraic representations to add meaning and usefulness to geometric concepts? Many outstanding teachers are emphasizing these interrelations between algebra and geometry.

The present trend is away from the compartmentalization of mathematics to a teaching of mathematics according to the difficulty of the concepts and the needs of the pupils. This trend is evident in many textbooks even though their titles have not changed. It is evident in the discussions at the meetings of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. It is evident in the classroom procedure of some of our most effective teachers. It is the basis for new programs in mathematics that are being developed in New York, Florida, California, in several of the provinces of Canada, and in many high schools throughout our country. Many of these new programs appear to be fully as effective as the usual programs in meeting the needs of college-preparatory students, if not more effective.

Our experimental course at the University of Illinois High School represents an attempt to bring the advantages of this trend into the classroom. We are, accordingly, reconsidering the entire mathematical curriculum at the University High School, keeping in mind not only the needs of terminal and of college-preparatory students, but also the development of mathematical concepts according to their difficulty and their inherent relationships.

We do not expect to make radical changes in the total subject-matter content. We do expect to change the emphasis and the point of view in several places, to consider numerical trigonometry and deductive thinking earlier than usual, and to reduce the emphasis upon detailed manipulations of the type frequently associated with college-entrance examinations. There will be fully as many proofs as usual, but fundamental principles rather than memorized procedures will be stressed. There will be more geometry in the algebra and more algebra in the geometry. We feel that this reorganization and the emphasis upon fundamental concepts will greatly improve the effectiveness of the early courses as terminal courses and will noticeably facilitate the mathematical development of students taking four years of mathematics. Students in schools that are unable to offer four years of mathematics may take the necessary courses by correspondence. This is common in Wisconsin, where the school boards are required to pay the fees. It is possible in Illinois, Iowa, and many other states.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

I shall conclude with a few remarks about the responsibilities of elementary and secondary schools—the responsibilities of public schools to the public in general and their pupils in particular.

Many recognized studies, including that of the Committee on Post-War Plans, have found that, with proper readiness programs, pupils master and enjoy number concepts at any early age. In both elementary and secondary schools, the science programs should emphasize concepts of measure and magnitude. In elementary and secondary schools and in colleges, each student must be stimulated and challenged to develop to the extent of his ability. In order to base our mathematical programs upon competencies needed by the students, we need further evaluations of those competencies. The University of Illinois list of mathematical competencies provides a starting point for continued study by colleges and secondary schools of the competencies needed by college-preparatory students. It represents an attempt to specify competencies rather than to require courses which often vary with the textbook at hand. Most important of all, it provides a basis for increased co-operation between the schools and the colleges in meeting their common responsibilities to their students.

A COURSE IN SOCIAL FUNDAMENTALS CONTRIBUTES TO ADJUSTMENT

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PERSONAL AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT of high-school and college students, as measured by personality tests and adjustment inventories, can be improved through courses in social fundamentals, as has been reported in several Texas studies. Factors pointed out as responsible for the improvement include course content and class procedures which provide a permissive atmosphere. Studies of course content are based on, or directly related to, students' problems of physical appearance, developing friendships, dating, and establishing satisfactory vocational, professional, or business relationships. Studies dealing with method emphasize the students' privileges and responsibilities for active participation in planning and carrying out the program of work for the semester. The studies include anecdotal records of students' remarks and comments which express feelings of satisfaction with regard to their improvement in social conduct, in self-confidence, and in social relationships.

In 1950, Pinkston,[1] working with two groups of forty-four college Freshmen at North Texas State College found that students in education classes in which the "group process" was used made higher adjustment scores than students in classes taught by the textbook method. In 1951, Wester,[2] working with thirty-five Gainesville High School homemaking students on their personal and social problems, found significant increases in scores on adjustment tests after she had taught specialized units on personality development. Wester worked with the students in selecting course content based on their needs and interests. Furthermore, she used informal procedures in the classroom, held individual conferences with the students, and sponsored an out-of-class social program. The statistical findings of this study were supported by sociometric tests and observations which showed how individuals who were formerly rejected established friendships and became accepted members of a group.

[1] John R. Pinkston, "An Evaluation of Teaching Techniques as Evidenced by the Guilford-Martin Temperament Inventory." Unpublished Master's thesis, School of Education, North Texas State College, Denton, Texas, 1950.

[2] Dean Wester, "The Effectiveness of a Specialized Unit in Improving the Adjustment of Homemaking Girls." Unpublished Master's thesis, School of Home Economics, North Texas State College, Denton, Texas, 1951.

THE PRESENT STUDY

A steady increase in the class enrolment, together with favorable comments of students and apparent changes in their attitude, has focused attention on the intrinsic value of a course in social fundamentals at North Texas State College. Offered as an elective by the School of Home Economics over a period of twenty years, the enrolment in the course has grown continuously. Unsolicited comments of the class members to teachers in other fields, as well as to the home-economics staff, indicate that students in this course gain something which helps them with their personal, social, and professional problems in a manner not experienced elsewhere in the college curriculum. Furthermore, their change in attitude as the work of the semester progresses furnishes additional evidence of improved adjustment. This article is a preliminary report of a more extended study which made use of selected tests to determine the contributions that the course in social fundamentals makes to the personal and social adjustment of college students.

SOURCE OF DATA

One hundred and forty students in four classes of social fundamentals participated in this study during the fall semester of 1952. After tentative objectives had been defined, the teacher and students planned the content of the course jointly. The following out-of-class social events were set up as an integral part of the semester's program: an informal picnic, a semi-formal tea, a formal dinner, a formal dance, and a mock wedding. Class activities revolved about recognizing, analyzing, and developing information on the social usage related to this program. Other areas of social usage included were men's and women's manners for various occasions and circumstances, entertaining at home, table etiquette, conversation, and correspondence.

In addition to occasional lectures, class activities consisted in informal group discussion, with leaders chosen from the class; committee work; reports; demonstrations; and sociodrama. Mock service was used in the study of teas, meal service, and table manners.

In the gathering of the data, three instruments were used for pretesting and final testing. To measure acquaintance with, and understanding of, the rules of social conduct, Stephenson and Millett's Test on Social Usage (published by McKnight and McKnight, Bloomington, Illinois) was employed. The Guilford-Bell Personnel Inventory (Sheridan Supply Co., Beverly Hills, California) was used to ascertain change in personality traits, and Bell's Adjustment Inventory (Stanford University Press) was employed to measure improvement in adjustment. Although the Test on Social Usage was designed for secondary schools, it was considered fairly satisfactory for the purpose of this study. It covers most of the social situations included in the course and has sufficient spread to show any improvement achieved by superior stu-

dents. The divisions of the test concerned living with others, introductions, writing letters, invitations, parties, eating, dating, dancing, behavior in public places, traveling, house guests, appearance, and miscellaneous situations. Form A was used for the pretest and Form B for the final test.

The Guilford-Martin Personnel Inventory measures three personality traits which are essentials of good adjustment: objectivity, agreeableness, and co-operation. This test is interesting to the students and has reported reliability coefficients of .83 for objectivity, .90 for agreeableness, and .91 for co-operativeness.

The Bell Adjustment Inventory provides four measures of personal and social adjustment: home adjustment, health adjustment, social adjustment, and emotional adjustment. The reliability coefficients for the four measures are reported as .89, .80, .89, and .85, respectively. Since only one form of the Adjustment Inventory is available, and only one form of the Personnel Inventory, the same forms of these instruments were used for both the pretests and the final tests.

After the semester's program of work had been planned, the idea of the proposed study was presented to the students and their interest and co-operation were enlisted. The tests were then administered at three successive class meetings.

Near the end of the semester the students learned the results of the pretests. The scores were explained and interpreted. Some of the types and causes of unsatisfactory adjustments were considered, and students' questions relative to what can be done about maladjustments were discussed. The tests were then repeated.

RESULTS

The statistical significance of the differences between the group means for the various factors being studied were determined by computing the t value for each pretest and final-test comparison. After the mean difference had been derived, the standard error of the difference and the critical ratio (t) were computed. The critical ratio was referred to Fisher's tables to determine statistical significance. The number of students for whom tests were analyzed were 41 men and 60 women. Fisher's t values for these numbers are: men, $t_{.01} = 2.704$ and $t_{.05} = 2.021$; women, $t_{.01} = 2.660$ and $t_{.05} = 2.000$.

Table 1 gives t values for the achievements of men and women as shown by the mean differences between their pretest and final-test scores. A comparison of the critical ratios for the social usage tests with Fisher's t values for groups of 41 and 60 shows that the score gains are highly significant for both men and women. For instance, t values for the score increases on the social usage test were 5.21 for men and 10.84 for women. These are much higher than the tabular values 2.704 and 2.660 necessary for significance at the .01 level for the respective groups.

The t values for gains in men's home adjustment (2.35) and health adjustment (2.535) exceed those necessary

for significance at the .05 level but are less than those necessary for the .01 level. Although these gains are not highly significant, they are large enough to be judged real. The men's gains in social and emotional adjustment are highly significant, as shown by the ratios of 6.70 and 4.83, respectively. The critical ratios for all four types of adjustment in women exceed the highly significant point. Finally, all the t values for the personal traits—objectivity, agreeableness, and co-operativeness—are greater than are necessary for significance at the .01 level.

TABLE 1

MEAN DIFFERENCE, STANDARD ERROR, AND CRITICAL RATIO FOR SCORES ON PRETEST AND FINAL TESTS OF SOCIAL USAGE

Social Factor	Mean Difference between Scores on Pretest and Final Test		Standard Error of Difference		Critical Ratio (t)	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Social usage	16.56	19.40	3.18	1.79	5.21	10.84
Adjustment Inventory:						
Home	1.15	1.13	.49	.33	2.35	3.42
Health	1.39	1.75	.55	.32	2.53	5.47
Social	3.15	2.15	.47	.41	6.70	5.24
Emotional	2.27	2.25	.47	.33	4.83	6.82
Personnel Inventory:						
Objectivity	9.46	10.40	1.54	1.38	6.14	7.54
Agreeableness	8.07	4.75	1.30	.95	6.21	5.00
Co-operation	10.10	8.27	1.84	1.27	5.49	6.51

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Several circumstances may have caused the differences in final-test scores to appear greater than they actually are. In the first place, since only 101 of the tests of the 140 students were used, sampling may have been selective. Students who were absent when any of the tests were given had no opportunity to make them up. Furthermore, all the tests for one section were given at the period set for final examinations. A large per cent of these were incomplete or carelessly done because students grew tired or were impatient to leave and because they knew their achievement would have no bearing on their marks for the semester. When the tests were analyzed, only the students whose tests were complete in every respect were used. This may have resulted in a sampling of more of the better students than a purely random sampling would yield.

A second circumstance which may have influenced the results of the adjustment and personnel inventories was that the same instrument was

used for both testings. A third factor may have been the discussion of pretest scores and suggestions for improvement of personal and social adjustment preceding the final test. Some of the students consciously tried to improve their scores. In so doing, they may have marked the inventories according to their judgment of the more desirable responses rather than according to their feelings.

The limitations of pencil-and-paper tests as a means of measuring improvement in personality and in adjustment are obvious. There is the student who knows the desired adjustment responses but does not habitually experience them. Given the opportunity, this student is more likely to mark the test items in such a way as to improve his score than to answer in terms of his real reactions. Regardless of their limitations, personality and adjustment tests are recognized as valuable means for discovering poorly adjusted individuals. The individual is often unacquainted with, or unaware of, the conditions or factors which cause maladjustment, and he is then unable to give a desired impression. Again, he may know the preferred answer but wish to face the situation objectively. Finally, he is likely to be unable to recognize the important items readily and quickly enough to achieve a material improvement on his score intentionally.

By and large, the results of the tests of students who are working for better adjustment may, at intervals, be expected to be influenced by increased knowledge; by improved ability to apply such knowledge to actual situations; and by an attitude showing interest in, or at least a willingness to improve, the adjustment scores. Hence, any factor which influences these achievements and attitudes tends to improve adjustments.

Concurrently with the development of a knowledge of the rules of social conduct, college men and women show improvement in certain personality traits as well as in personal and social adjustment. Specifically, these students show more objectivity, more agreeableness, and more cooperativeness. They also give evidence of better home, health, social, and emotional adjustment.

To what extent knowledge of social usage alone, without the development of social skills, is a factor in adjustment is not shown. Because such knowledge is essential to the development of social skills, it is necessarily important. It seems likely that social skills themselves, not measured by this study, are essential factors in the improvement of these personality traits and in the concomitant personal and social adjustment.

Further studies are needed to determine the importance of course content and class procedures in influencing student adjustment. For such studies effective use should be made of control groups and of sociometric evaluations.

DIAGNOSING COMMUNITY READING

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*

DETERMINING the kinds and the amounts of reading that are being done outside of school is one of the most difficult problems faced by teachers of reading. Both teachers of recreational reading and subject-matter teachers who want to train learners to continue reading in the subject fields are concerned with this problem.

It is unfortunate that almost all measurement attempts related to reading have considered only in-school reading. The assumption has been made that, if the child *can* read well when he leaves school, he *will* read often and well in later life. This assumption has seldom if ever been checked in most communities.

The approach discussed in this article is designed to suggest and illustrate a technique which high-school teachers or departments may find profitable to use.

A committee of teachers in a midwestern junior high school decided they needed (1) some clarification of their out-of-school reading goals, (2) some checks on the extent to which these goals are being achieved in the community, and (3) some indication of the degree to which the home situations are likely to facilitate the achievement of reading goals. With these objectives in mind, the committee, after considerable discussion, set up a list of fifteen objectives[1] upon which they could agree. They also listed forty-one questions to be asked of parents by means of a questionnaire.

The teachers then turned their attention to the matter of setting up a system wherein a fair representation might be secured from each of five schools. It was decided that two seventh-grade classes, one eighth-grade class, one ninth-grade class, and one eleventh-grade class would be used. The questionnaire was sent to 123 families and returned by 95 families. Illustrative goals and results for a few of the questions are discussed below.

Goal 1: Increased reading of nonfictional books.—The question from which the data for Item 1 in Table 1 were compiled read: "What was the

[1] Some items were suggested by Ray H. Simpson, "Reading: In-School Goals and Out-of-School Behavior," *School Review*, LVIII (March, 1950), 147–52.

number of nonfictional books received as Christmas gifts last year?" While this is only one of a number of evaluative questions related to this goal, the answers give some clue to the frequency with which such books are read.

Goal 2: Increased reading of drama.—The question concerned with this goal read: "How many plays has your family read during the past month?" If teachers of English improve in their teaching of drama in these school communities, the figures given in answer to this question should increase.

Goal 3: Larger membership in book clubs.—It is true that the desirability of increasing memberships in book clubs might be questioned by some teachers. Nevertheless, such membership is a tangible indication of interest in reading.

Goal 4: Increased use of magazines rating those things consumers buy or use.—The question, "Do you subscribe to any magazine report or bulletin which emphasizes how to tell the value of any given article and how to choose the best for your money?" was used to secure information about this goal. It is interesting to find that more families read materials of this type than read any of the other kinds of materials represented in these four goals.

Goal 5: Increased use of "acceptable" magazines.—The families were asked, "Please check the magazines listed below to which you subscribe." The frequencies of mention ranged from one for *Theatre Arts* and *Consumer Reports* to 39 for *Reader's Digest*. As was to be expected, the well-known, popular magazines were mentioned most often. *Reader's Digest* was followed in frequency of mention by "comic books" (of various titles) and *Better Homes and Gardens*, each with a frequency of 36. *Collier's* and *Life* were each checked 30 times.

When the committee of teachers met at the conclusion of the project,

TABLE 1

DATA FROM ILLUSTRATIVE QUESTIONS INCLUDED IN SURVEY OF COMMUNITY READING

Type of Data	Grade VII		Grade VIII (13 Families)	Grade IX (23 Families)	Grade XI (20 Families)
	School A (21 Families)	School B (18 Families)			
1. Average number per family of nonfictional books received as Christmas gifts in preceding year	0.6	1.1	0.3	0.6	1.2
2. Average number per family of plays read in preceding month	.5	.7	.3	.7	.7
3. Per cent of families in which any member belongs to a book club	9.5	5.6	23.1	13.0	.0
4. Per cent of families subscribing to bulletins telling how to choose best value for your money	19.0	38.9	30.8	30.4	10.0

they were somewhat surprised and pleased to find a close correlation between parent and pupil reaction to the questionnaire.

Parents returning the questionnaire were frank in commenting on the worthiness of the project. About half of the total questionnaires returned were found to contain more information from the parent than was asked for by the committee. Several parents stated that they allowed their children to read all types of books, magazines, and comics. The majority, however, stated that they sincerely tried to guide their children's choice of selections but that they had failed at times. One parent stated, "It's the duty of the school to teach my boy what and how he should read." It seems more reasonable to assume that this should be the duty of both home and school. However, this type of response did impress the committee because of the clear indication that teachers must consider the development of out-of-school reading habits a prime objective in all curriculums.

Pupil reaction to the questionnaire was somewhat more diversified than the parent response. All members of the committee recounted statements made at the times the questionnaire was handed out and was returned by the pupils. It was necessary to urge many students to return the completed questionnaire. Some teachers had more success in this endeavor than others. One teacher emphasized and explained thoroughly the purpose of the questionnaire to the pupils before sending the forms home. This teacher and class decided that they would study the returns, using the results as a measuring stick in planning their new literature unit. This teacher reported that the amount of zeal and zest which his students have since shown in planning new literature units has alone made the study well worth the time and effort.

SUMMARY

A brief picture has been given of how a group of teachers set up and initiated a check on out-of-school behavior goals in reading. Illustrative goals and items of evidence have been given. Such a procedure would seem to have these potential values: (1) It can help teachers and learners to clarify their goals. (2) It is one way of emphasizing goals in teaching and learning activities. (3) Results from such a survey, together with comparable results from subsequent surveys, can, if used with appropriate caution, give one basis for directing and measuring improvement in teaching and learning in a community.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

II. The Subject Fields

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THE SAME GROUPING of subject fields is being followed for the lists of references in the February and March numbers of the *School Review* that have been used in the cycles of lists that have been published for the past two decades. The concept of "instruction" is also the same and includes curriculum, methods of teaching and study and supervision, and measurement. In each subject field the list includes items published during a period of approximately twelve months since the preparation of the list appearing last year.

ENGLISH[1]

Dora V. Smith
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99. Bradway, Bruce M. "High-School Students' T.V. Habits," *Advertising Age*, XXII (July 23, 1951), 47–58; (July 30, 1951), 39–40. Condensed in *Education Digest*, XVII (October, 1951), 10–12.

Surveys habits of high-school pupils in relation to television preferences, homework, length of ownership, critical attitudes, and parental control.

100. Burton, Dwight L. "The Novel for the Adolescent," *English Journal*, XL (September, 1951), 363–69.

Evaluates recent fiction concerning problems of adolescence.

101. Butterworth, Robert F., and Thompson, George. "Factors Related to Age-Grade Trends and Sex Differences in Children's Preferences for Comic Books," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXXVIII (March, 1951), 71–96.

Studies the comic book preferences of 202 pupils from Grades VI–XII in three public schools of Syracuse, New York.

102. Carlsen, George Robert. "The Dimensions of Literature," *English Journal*, XLI (April, 1952), 179–86.

Urges carefully distributed emphasis upon varied functions of teaching literature.

103. De Boer, John J. "Teaching of Communication," *Progressive Education*, XXIX (October, 1951), 24–26.

Reveals need to develop in today's classrooms improved interpersonal communication; reading for social insight; understanding of the role of language in human experience; standards of criticism of what pupils hear, view, and read; and pleasure in good reading.

104. Derleth, August W. "Contemporary Science-Fiction," *English Journal*, XLI (January, 1952), 1–8.

[1] See also Item 538 (Lorge and Kruglov) in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1952, issue of the *School Review;* also Items 463 (*Areas of Research Interest in the Language Arts*), 480 (*Growth in Language from Kindergarten through High School*), 483 (Gunn), 487 (Knower), 490 (Lyness), and 504 (Witty) in the list appearing in the October, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

Gives a helpful overview of recent science fiction and its writers.

105. DUNN, ANITA E., and OTHERS. *Fare for the Reluctant Reader*. Albany, New York: Capital Area School Development Association, 1952. Pp. 168+x.

Lists books, magazines, and audio-visual aids for slow learners in Grades VII–X.

106. *The English Language Arts*. Prepared by the Commission on the English Curriculum, National Council of Teachers of English, N.C.T.E. Curriculum Series, Vol. I. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952. Pp. xxiv+502.

Presents a five-year study of aims, methods, procedures in curriculum making, and issues concerning the teaching of reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

107. GRIFFIN, WILLIAM J., and VENABLE, TOM. "Examination of Examinations: Standardized Tests of English Grammar and Usage," *Educational Forum*, XVI (January, 1952), 211–18.

Calls in question commonly used tests of usage as to validity of items, techniques of measurement, and interpretation of results.

108. HAUGH, OSCAR M. "Representative Research in the Communication Skills," *Education*, LXXII (March, 1952), 470–80.

Reviews research in the skills of listening, grammar, composition, and speech, and in the interrelationships among them.

109. HAYAKAWA, S. I. "Linguistic Science and the Teaching of English," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, XXIX (January–February, 1952), 9–22.

Makes a dynamic plea for natural, motivated expression, observation of language in varied situations, and separation of *saying something* from editorial correction.

110. HEILMAN, ARTHUR. "Critical Listening and the Educational Process," *Education*, LXXII (March, 1952), 481–87.

Presents evidence of uncritical listening based on measures prepared for college Freshmen.

111. JOLIET TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL. "Developing Oral Communication Skills," *English Journal*, XLI (January, 1952), 24–30.

Summarizes a committee report on oral communication.

112. KAULFERS, WALTER V. "The Language Arts in Modern Dress," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVI (October, 1951), 330–38.

Urges, with specific examples, newer methods of teaching grammar and sentence structure in connection with expression.

113. LEVENSON, WILLIAM B., and STASHEFF, EDWARD. *Teaching through Radio and Television*. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1952 (revised). Pp. 560.

Gives practical helps for preparation, selection, presentation, and evaluation of school broadcasts and telecasts in elementary and secondary schools.

114. LEWIS, PHILIP. "Television Settles Down," *Clearing House*, XXVI (November, 1951), 168–72.

Furnishes evidence of reduction of hours spent in viewing, less interference with homework, and greater maturity in program selection with age of viewer and years of ownership of television.

115. MCCULLOUGH, CONSTANCE. "Word Analysis in the High School Program," *English Journal*, XLI (January, 1952), 15–23.

Presents specific help for approaching unfamiliar words.

116. MILLER, HELEN R. "Unified Studies: An Escape from Educational Feudalism," *Clearing House*, XXVI (September, 1951), 20–24.

Describes a revolt from conventional teaching which improves learning in English.

117. NEWMAN, HAROLD. "Making Composition Writing Meaningful," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIV (February, 1952), 46–54.

Urges emphasis upon self-discipline in writing and guidance by the teacher in determining ends and means.

118. New York City Teachers of Slow Learners. "The XG Program," *English Journal*, XL (December, 1951), 553–59.

Presents a composite picture of what four teachers of English in New York City are doing for slow learners.

119. Nichols, Ralph G. "Listening Instruction in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (May, 1952), 158–74.

Summarizes research in listening and methods of increasing competence in it.

120. North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges, Contest Committee. "A Program of Speech Education," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXVII (October, 1951), 347–58.

Proposes elements of speech important for all pupils whether in integrated courses, in extra-curriculum activities, or in specialized speech programs.

121. Poley, Irvin C. "More Chances for Growth—the Value of a Malvern Festival," *English Journal*, XL (October, 1951), 433–36.

Presents a program of dramatic art involving many students in the Germantown Friends high school.

122. Reeve, Frederic E. "Toward a Philosophy of Communication," *Education*, LXXII (March, 1952), 445–55.

Defines communication and methods for interrelating skills of speech, writing, reading, and listening.

123. Roody, Sarah I. "A Bridge for the Poets," *English Journal*, XL (November, 1951), 492–98.

Interrelates poetic technique and poetic effect with what poets have to say to adolescents.

124. Roody, Sarah I. "Effect of Radio, Television, and Motion Pictures on the Development of Maturity," *English Journal*, XLI (May, 1952), 245–50.

Offers suggestions for developing maturity through, and in the use of, mass modes of communication.

125. Ryan, Margaret. "Achieving Unity with Diversity," *English Journal*, XL (December, 1951), 547–52.

Reveals a technique for using class, group, and individual reading within the same unit of instruction.

126. Shepherd, Edith E. "Building a Background for Understanding Our Language," *English Journal*, XL (November, 1951), 499–505.

Presents a helpful approach to the development and contemporary use of English which will appeal to older pupils.

127. Sheridan, Marion C. "Teaching a Novel," *English Journal*, XLI (January, 1952), 8–14.

Gives inspiring suggestions for a common approach to *The Return of the Native* by a class of intelligent readers.

128. Singer, Henry A. "Human Relations and Mass Communications: A Human Relations Motion Picture Training Series," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XXV (September, 1951), 50–63.

Describes with concrete examples the use of excerpts from literary and documentary films to demonstrate the needs of youth.

129. Smith, Rosemary A. "Effective Preparation for College English," *School Review*, LX (February, 1952), 90–93.

Presents evidence concerning the relative value of usage drills and practice in writing for success in college English.

130. Strang, Ruth; Gilbert, Christine B.; and Scoggin, Margaret. *Gateways to Readable Books*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1952 (revised). Pp. 148.

Combines results of research into books suitable for reluctant readers.

131. THOMAS, CLEVELAND A. "Recent Articles on Audio-visual Aids in Secondary-School English," *English Journal*, XLI (June, 1952), 313–17.

Compiles helps for the use of audio-visual aids, including classroom devices originated by the teacher.

132. WALL, W. D., and SIMSON, W. A. "The Responses of Adolescent Groups to Certain Films," *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXI (June, 1951, Part II), 81–88.

Presents evidence of the stimulation of fantasy, experience of shock, and identification in the reactions of teen-age boys to twelve films of varied character.

133. WILLARD, CHARLES B. "The Poets of Controversy for the High-School Student," *English Journal*, XL (November, 1951), 508–14.

Shows how such writers as MacLeish, Auden, and Pound may be successfully taught in high school.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES[2]

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Regular departments in periodicals, such as "Sight and Sound in Social Studies," have not been included in this list. Similarly omitted in order to save space are most of the items which were reviewed in "Educational News and Editorial Comment: Education for Citizenship" in this journal for November, 1952.

134. ALLEN, JACK (editor). *The Teacher of the Social Studies*. Twenty-third Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, 1952. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1952. Pp. viii+248.

Leaders in the field of social-studies education discuss the problems of the pre-service education of social-studies teachers, their problems in the classroom and the community, and their professional growth.

135. ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK. *Handbook for Social Studies Teaching*. New York: Republic Book Co., 1951. Pp. viii+240.

This "methods" book includes, among others, chapters on the core curriculum and adaptation to both the slow learner and the superior student.

136. AYER, FREDERIC L., and CORMAN, BERNARD C. "Citizenship Concepts Are Developed by Laboratory Practices," *Social Education*, XVI (May, 1952), 215–16.

Shows that firsthand experience with governmental processes, properly used, develops in high-school Seniors more adequate conceptions of the good citizen.

137. BINING, ARTHUR C., and BINING, DAVID H. *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952 (third edition). Pp. x+350.

A thorough revision of a standard work.

138. BLAKEMORE, JAMES E. (editor). *Focus on Foreign Policy*. Annual Proceedings of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies, 1950–1951, Vol. XLVIII. Philadelphia: The Council (% James E. Blakemore, Great Neck High School, Great Neck, New York), 1952. Pp. 72.

Stresses the work of the Department of State and emphasizes teaching about Asia.

139. BOND, FLOYD A., and ROEHR, GEORGE L. "The Rediscovery of Economics," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (May, 1952), 295–300.

Reports recommendations of the Southern California Conference on Economic Education for giving some economic education to all upper-secondary-school students.

[2] See also Item 538 (Aldrich) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

140. BRICKMAN, WILLIAM W. "Social Studies," *School and Society*, LXXV (February 23, 1952), 116–24.

A first-rate review of the major books appearing in 1948–51.

141. BROWN, RALPH A. "Locating Resources for the Teaching of Local History," *School Review*, LX (May, 1952), 292–97.

Points out, with examples, ways of finding and of using primary sources in the teaching of local history.

142. BROWN, RALPH A., and BROWN, MARIAN R. "The Social Studies Teacher and American Biography," *Social Studies*, XLIII (January, 1952), 10–20.

Discusses values of biographical reading by history students and reviews recent biographies related to United States history.

143. BYE, EDGAR C. *How To Conduct a Field Trip*. How To Do It Series No. 12. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1952. Pp. 8.

An experienced director of trips summarizes useful suggestions on preparation for, and conduct of, field trips.

144. CHAUSOW, HYMEN M. "The G.E.D. and the Social Studies," *Junior College Journal*, XXII (April, 1952), 450–56.

Reports on the use of a G.E.D. test as a social-studies pretest and on the results of providing a special class for, and of giving individual attention to, students for whom failure seemed probable.

145. COLLINGS, MILLER R. *How To Utilize Community Resources*. How To Do It Series No. 13. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1952. Pp. 8.

Summarizes some of the more obvious aspects of the topic.

146. CUNNINGHAM, MARY E., and BROWN, RALPH A. "The Social Studies and Local History," *Social Studies*, XLIII (March, 1952), 104–13.

Reviews the highlights of the history of local-history-teaching in the United States, discusses its values, and gives a relevant bibliography.

147. D'AMBROSIO, LOUIS M. "Adjusting the Social Studies to the Non-academically Inclined Child," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIV (January, 1952), 13–18.

Recommends emphasis upon current materials, the open-textbook method, and motor abilities.

148. ECKERT, GEORG (editor). *Internationales Jahrbuch für Geschichtsunterricht*. Bd. I. Brumswick, Germany: Verlag Albert Limbach, 1951. Pp. 340.

Contains informative articles on the history curriculum in Austria and France and summarizes the results of French-German, English-German, and UNESCO conferences on the revision of history textbooks.

149. "Education for Citizenship," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXXIII (December, 1951), 165–67.

Reports on current experiments in, and studies of, citizenship education, notably by the schools co-operating with Teachers College, Columbia University, and with Kansas State College, and at Cambridge (Massachusetts), Detroit, and Syracuse. The issue also summarizes the 1951 yearbook (published in November, 1952) of the National Council for the Social Studies on citizenship education, and offers schools a useful inventory for citizenship education.

150. ENGLE, T. L. "A National Survey of the Teaching of Psychology in High Schools," *School Review*, LIX (November, 1951), 467–71.

Psychology is taught as an elective, one-semester subject in 8.4 per cent of high schools.

151. ERICKSON, EDITH F. "The Study of a Problem," *Clearing House*, XXVI (October, 1951), 82–86.

Describes the teaching of a unit in "Problems of Democracy."

152. GILMORE, ALLEN A. "The Methods and Concepts of History," *Journal of General Education*, VI (January, 1952), 113–21.

A professor of history in a technical college concentrates upon teaching Freshmen how to use a "disciplined set of methods" of historical study and how to think in terms of a pattern of historical concepts.

153. GROSS, RICHARD E. "What's Wrong with American History?" *Social Education*, XVI (April, 1952), 157–61.

Reports the findings of a study of United States history-teaching in California. Ill-prepared or uninterested teachers, the teaching of discrete facts, and poor integration rank high as causes of dissatisfaction with the course.

154. HELFANT, KENNETH. "The Teaching of Psychology in High Schools: A Review of the Literature," *School Review*, LX (November, 1952), 467–73.

Reviews arguments for and against such courses, problems of securing teachers and teaching materials, and current issues in organization of psychological content in the high-school curriculum.

155. HENRY, GEORGE. "Developing Concepts at the High School Level," *Reading Instruction in the Total School Program*, pp. 29–34. Proceedings of the 33rd Annual Conference Held at the University of Delaware, March 2, 3, 1951, Vol. II. Compiled by Russell G. Stauffer. Newark, Delaware: Reading Clinic, School of Education, University of Delaware, 1951.

Suggests, with special reference to social-studies terms, how to, and how *not* to, help students put meaning into the words which they use and how to apply the concepts once they are meaningful.

156. HOLTON, SAMUEL M. (editor). "Providing for the Civic and Organizational Needs of Adolescents," *High School Journal*, XXXV (February, 1952), 130–60.

Discusses social-studies teaching skills, the use of the "Laboratory-Practice" approach in citizenship education, and guidance functions of the social studies.

157. JOHNSON, B. LAMAR. "General Education for Citizenship," *Junior College Journal*, XXIII (October, 1952), 91–97.

Defines general education and describes some of the leading California programs in citizenship education.

158. JOHNSON, EARL S. "Social Class as Fact and Perspective in the Social Studies," *School Review*, LX (April, 1952), 203–12.

Develops the proposition that "the preeminent obligation of the social studies is to facilitate the student's socialization and acquaint him with its nature as a social process, to the end that he may . . . come to know what manner of man he is."

159. JOINT COUNCIL ON ECONOMIC EDUCATION. *Summary Report of the Joint Council on Economic Education, 1948–1951*. New York: The Council (444 Madison Avenue), [n.d.]. Pp. 58.

Reviews briefly the work of the Joint Council in getting co-operation from interested groups and in developing workshops and materials to promote economic literacy. Appendix A reviews field developments by states.

160. JONES, O. GARFIELD. "Is Civic Education a Fraud?" *National Municipal Review*, XLI (May, 1952), 234–37.

Concludes that civic education is not a fraud, on the basis of Jones's notable course at Toledo and of the results of a survey which indicated that, of Toledo's 1930–38 graduates in Lucas County, 92 per cent had voted in the state election of 1950.

161. KEMMERER, DONALD L. "Let's Use More Economics in Teaching Economic History," *Social Studies*, XLIII (January, 1952), 3–10.

An economist specifies analytical and interpretive tools which he finds neglected in economic-history teaching.

162. KENWORTHY, LEONARD S. *World Horizons for Teachers*. Teachers College Studies in Education. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. Pp. xiv+142.

Describes practices in "education for world-mindedness."

163. KEOHANE, ROBERT E. "The Source Method in Nebraska, 1891–1900: An Early Experiment in the In-service Education of Teachers," *Social Studies*, XLIII (February and March, 1952), 51–58, 113–17.

Traces the attempt, through teaching and publication, of Professor Fred M. Fling and his associates to encourage the more intelligent use of primary sources in history-teaching on the secondary level.

164. KEOHANE, ROBERT E. "Education for Citizenship," *School Review*, LX (November, 1952), 445–57.

Reviews the political, economic, current affairs, international relations, and comparative education aspects of the topic.

165. MCGLYNN, EDNA M. "Civics and History at the Registry of Deeds," *Social Education*, XV (November, 1951), 333–35.

Describes the successful use of county records in a teachers' college history course.

166. MEIKLEJOHN, DONALD. "Social Policy as a Focus for Social Science," *Journal of General Education*, VI (October, 1951), 26–34.

Describes the content, organization, and teaching procedures of "Social Sciences 3" in the College of the University of Chicago.

167. MILLER, JAMES W. "Revitalizing the Teaching of Government," *Educational Forum*, XVI (November, 1951), 103–7.

Describes "Senior Government Day" in Michigan counties, in which high-school Seniors, social-studies teachers, school administrators, local and state public officials, and political scientists co-operate.

168. MOFFATT, MAURICE P., and RICH, STEPHEN G. "What Documents Have Educational Value," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XXV (September, 1951), 23–33.

Suggests appropriate educational uses for a wide range of primary sources.

169. NAFTALIN, ARTHUR. "Social Science in General Education," *General Education*, pp. 111–35. Fifty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1952.

Reviews basic issues and present state of the social studies in general education at the college level and warns against the dangers of "skepticism, presentism, scientism, and anti-intellectualism."

170. PENROSE, WILLIAM O. *Freedom Is Ourselves: Legal Rights and Duties of the Citizen as a Basis for Civic Education*. University of Delaware Monograph Series, No. 2. Newark, Delaware: University of Delaware Press, 1952. Pp. xviii+256.

Defines citizenship basically in political terms, analyzes the rights and duties of citizens and of aliens in the United States, points out the inadequacies for citizenship education of the treatment by a limited sample of civics textbooks, and makes some worth-while suggestions for improving education for citizenship.

171. PETERS, FRANK R. "An Outsider Looks at a Liberal Program in Education: An Appraisal of the Course in the College of the University of Chicago," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXIII (March, 1952), 131–36, 170.

Describes "Social Sciences 1" at Chicago and makes generally sound suggestions for its improvement, particularly of the comprehensive examination.

172. REDFIELD, ROBERT. "Social Science Research in General Education," *Journal of General Education*, VI (January, 1952), 81–91.

Analyzes the nature of social-science method in the context of a college "culture-and-personality" course.

173. SAMFORD, CLARENCE D., and COTTLE, EUGENE. *Social Studies in the Secondary School*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. x+376.

A new "methods" book which eschews philosophy and history of education and seeks to be practical and to promote education for life-adjustment.

174. SAWYER, MICHAEL O., and BROWN, STUART GERRY. "Problems in Democratic Citizenship," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXIII (February, 1952), 84–88, 116.

Describes an "inquiry into depth of citizenship" for college Freshmen at Syracuse University, which uses a "case approach" and readings chosen from classic and contemporary social and political thinkers. The course concentrates upon the values, ideals, and ways of democracy, political and nonpolitical.

175. SMITH, JOE. *Student Councils for Our Times*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. Pp. viii+110.

Describes the status of student councils in high schools as depicted in recent literature and develops the author's ideas of what councils ought to become and how they can best contribute to citizenship education.

176. SPIESKE, ALICE W. "Bibliography of Textbooks in the Social Studies, 1950–51," *Social Education*, XV (December, 1951), 385–86.

Third annual supplement to the *Bibliography of Textbooks for the Social Studies* (1949).

177. STRONG, C. F. (compiler). *Teaching for International Understanding: An Examination of Methods and Materials*. London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1952.

A statement prepared for the British National Commission for UNESCO and published for the Ministry of Education.

178. TAYLOR, GEORGE R. "Meeting the Social Studies Where They Are: The Introductory Course in Social Science at Amherst College," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXIII (February, 1952), 68–74.

Describes a "problems-approach" course for college Sophomores in American civilization, which combines lectures, readings, analytical papers, and seminar-type discussions.

179. VINCENT, WILLIAM S. "The Developing Program of the Citizenship Education Project," *Teachers College Record*, LIII (March, 1952), 307–11.

Describes the procedures of one of the leading ventures in co-operative civic education.

180. WEINBERG, MEYER. "Social Science Discussion and the Tape Recorder," *Junior College Journal*, XXII (October, 1951), 68–71.

Tells how to use tape-recorded interviews to provide stimulating material for discussion groups in a junior-college course in social science.

181. WEINGAST, DAVID E. "Labor-Management Relations Number," *Education*, LXXII (April, 1952), 511–76.

Describes several learning projects on this topic, and contains a useful section, "Teaching the Teachers," with suggestions for content and materials.

182. WRONSKI, STANLEY P. *How To Locate Useful Government Publications*. How To Do It Series No. 11. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1952. Pp. 8.

Gives the teacher help in locating such material and some good suggestions for its use.

183. ZINOVIEV, M. A. *Soviet Methods of Teaching History*. Translated by Alexis

Musin-Pushkin. Ann Arbor, Michigan: J. W. Edwards Co. for the American Council of Learned Societies, 1952. Pp. vi+164.

Makes abundantly clear how important the Soviet regime regards the teaching of what passes for history in the U.S.S.R. and how to do it so as "to imbue their pupils with ardent love for their native land and to foster Soviet patriotism within them."

GEOGRAPHY

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184. BECKER, HENRY F. "Some Implications of Resource-Use Education for Geographers," *Journal of Geography*, LI (March, 1952), 103–11.

Explains (1) the basic concepts of resource-use education and (2) the opportunities such programs provide for geography teachers to contribute their training, skill, and experience in meeting community problems.

185. BECKMAN, WALTER H. "Trees to Lumber: A Project," *Journal of Geography*, LI (March, 1952), 112–18.

Describes procedures used in collecting data, preparing exhibits, and presenting a program by seventh-grade pupils in a six-week study of trees and lumber.

186. CRESSEY, GEORGE B. "The Land of the Five Seas," *Journal of Geography*, LI (September, 1952), 221–30.

Presents material of the concrete and current type needed in helping students to appreciate the significance of specific areas in their world-relationships.

187. DIETTRICH, SIGISMOND DE RUEDESHEIM. "Some Geographic Aspects of the Russian Expansion," *Education*, LXXII (February, 1952), 371–80.

Presents basic information useful in helping students understand factors associated in giving a specific area its individual character.

188. EDEL, WILBUR. "Geography and World Affairs," *Journal of Geography*, LI (September, 1952), 248–53.

Describes an experiment to discover what knowledge of Europe the average college student relies upon in his discussion of international affairs.

189. FINE, BENJAMIN. "U.S. College Students Flunk in Knowledge of Geography," *Journal of Geography*, L (November, 1951), 334–41.

Reprinted from the *New York Times*, June 11, 1951. Presents results of a geography survey among college students, including the test questions and answers and the per cents of students giving right answers.

190. FIRMAN, DAVID. "Geography in Higher Education," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXIII (March, 1952), 137–44.

Summarizes the geography-course offerings in colleges throughout the country.

191. FOSTER, ALICE (editor). *Perspective in the Study of Geography*. A Collection of Papers Presented at the Geography Alumni Conference. Chicago: Department of Geography, University of Chicago, 1951. Pp. iv+42.

Edith P. Parker, in a paper entitled "Conclusions concerning Orientation Courses," reveals experiments with various units and procedures which result in an effective program. Allan K. Philbrick, in a paper on "An Organizing Theme for Geography," illustrates the application of the core of ideas involved in geography by considering commercial sunflower production in the occupancy pattern of the Mennonites of southern Manitoba. Robert S. Platt, in a paper entitled "Introductory Field Study," explains the need for, and nature of, field study as an integral part of geographic orientation. Robert A. Heil, in a paper on "Some Aspects of Laboratory and Library Work," shows ways in which the two activities can and should make valuable contributions toward attaining some of the goals of an orientation course in geography.

192. GEIS, GILBERT. "Geography in Norwegian Schools," *Education*, LXXII (February, 1952), 434–39.

Presents the results of a study of geography in Norwegian schools based on six questions: (1) who (2) communicates what (3) to whom (4) through what channels (5) for what effect, and (6) with what effect?

193. JAMES, LINNIE B. "The Daily Geographic News: A Pupil Newspaper," *Journal of Geography*, LI (April, 1952), 151–56.

Describes a daily newspaper issued by an eighth-grade geography class.

194. JAMES, LINNIE B. "A Mystery Country—A Lesson in the Readings of Graphs and Statistics," *Journal of Geography*, LI (September, 1952), 231–35.

Describes how eighth-grade pupils were guided in their use of maps, graphs, and statistics to discover outstanding characteristics of a country (New Zealand).

195. JUNGE, RUBY M. "Geography in the High Schools of Michigan," *Journal of Geography*, L (November, 1951), 329–34.

Reports on status of geography as revealed by data secured from questionnaires sent to all high schools in Michigan on enrolment in geography classes for Grades IX through XII, courses taught, and length of courses.

196. KOSTANICK, HUEY LOUIS. "The Significance of Geopolitical Changes in Eastern Europe," *Education*, LXXII (February, 1952), 381–87.

Presents geographic information which may be useful in directing students in their studies of eastern Europe.

197. OWEN, JOHN E. "A Newer View of Geography," *Education*, LXXII (February, 1952), 431–33.

Shows the expansive curriculum possibilities that stem from recognition of the role of geographic factors in making man's society what it is.

198. PHILBRICK, ALAN K., and MAYER, HAROLD M. "A Technique for Visual Examination of Associations of Areal Patterns," *Journal of Geography*, L (December, 1951), 367–73.

Describes a technique of preparing slides which provides an effective approach to the graphic combination on a single map of multiple patterns in an areal association.

199. PHILLIPS, MARY VIOLA. "Pennsylvania's Geography Course of Study—Grades VII to XII," *Journal of Geography*, L (November, 1951), 323–29.

Explains the philosophy and plan by which a state geography committee developed a course of study directed to meet the needs of high-school pupils.

200. POUNDS, NORMAN J. G. "The Political Geography of the Straits of Gibraltar," *Journal of Geography*, LI (April, 1952), 165–70.

Presents material on the distinctive characteristics of the divisions of a relatively small area to help students make the proper political associations.

201. ROSTLUND, ERHARD. "The Persistent Planetary-Wind Diagram," *Journal of Geography*, LI (October, 1952), 285–92.

Presents objections to the use of certain well-known diagrams commonly used in introductory geography courses and recommends a procedure that will be not only stimulating to the students but sound.

202. VISHER, STEPHEN S., and VISHER, HALENE HATCHER. "Conservation, an International Problem," *Education*, LXXII (February, 1952), 417–22.

Discusses what recent international conferences have accomplished in their approaches to solutions of world-problems concerned with natural resources.

203. VOURAS, PAUL P. "Location of Schools—A Problem in Educational Geography," *Journal of Geography*, LI (March, 1952), 121–25.

Gives an example of a method employed in the selection of a school site, in which high-

school pupils could participate and thereby benefit themselves and their community.

204. WARMAN, H. J. "Three R's Are Not Enough," *Progressive Education*, XXIX (April, 1952), 193–97.

Presents case histories which show that three R's were not enough to produce educated citizens and lists twenty-three practical questions which geography teachers can use as guides to build "understanding, loyalty, and pride in the community."

205. WILLIAMS, KENNETH J. "A Survey of the Knowledge of Incoming Students in College Geography," *Journal of Geography*, LI (April, 1952), 157–62.

Presents implications gained from results of a study conducted to determine what incoming students in college know of the basic role played by a knowledge of place geography of the United States.

206. WILSON, MARIETTA COPPOCK. "What Shall We Teach in Junior High School Geography?" *Journal of Geography*, LI (February, 1952), 55–64.

Reviews an investigation of courses of study in geography at the junior high school level and presents conclusions based on a careful analysis of the data.

SCIENCE

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207. ABRAHAMS, HAROLD J. "Preparing High School Students for the Atomic Era," *Science Education*, XXXV (December, 1951), 266–68.

Presents an outline of a course on atomic science at the secondary-school level.

208. ABRAMSON, BERNARD. "A Comparison of Two Methods of Teaching Mechanics in High School," *Science Education*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 96–106.

Compares the traditional method of teaching mechanics and the use of graphic representations, such as pictures, photographs, cartoons, charts, or diagrams, as the sole source of instructional materials.

209. AUDIO-VISUAL COMMITTEE, CHICAGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS. "Material Aids Information," *American Biology Teacher*, XIV (February, 1952), 32–37.

A listing of sources of free films in the field of biology.

210. BEIDLEMAN, RICHARD G. "The Field Trip, a Technique in Natural Science Teaching," *School Science and Mathematics*, LII (February, 1952), 105–18.

Discusses purposes of field trips and methods of procedure and gives a good bibliography.

211. BLANC, SAM S. "Science Interests of Junior High School Pupils," *School Science and Mathematics*, LI (December, 1951), 745–52.

Reports the results of an investigation to determine interests in various aspects of the biological and physical sciences.

212. BLANC, SAM S. "Review of the General Goals in Science Teaching," *Science Education*, XXXVI (February, 1952), 47–52.

Summarizes recommendations made by national committees, science-education books, courses of study, and current literature.

213. BLANC, SAM S. "Instructional Materials for the Physical Sciences," *Science Teacher*, XIX (March, 1952), 63–66.

Lists available films dealing with electricity, magnetism, hydraulics, and mechanics and other types of visual materials useful in these areas.

214. BURNETT, R. WILL. "Combating Prejudice through Science Teaching." Washington: National Science Teachers Association, 1952. Pp. 32.

Discusses the problem of intergroup relations and gives suggestions for utilizing science classes to bring about a better understanding of this problem.

215. CROMBIE, CHARLES W. "Selecting Science Textbooks," *Science Education*, XXXV (December, 1951), 276–78.

Suggests criteria for evaluation of textbooks and a score card based on these criteria.

216. DECK, RAY F. "Vocabulary Development To Improve Reading and Achievement in Science," *American Biology Teacher*, XIV (January, 1952), 13–15.

Gives suggestions for discovering the words or terms which may be new or difficult and for arranging learning activities to develop an understanding of them.

217. FRANZEN, CARL G. F. "The Place of the Laboratory in the Teaching of Science," *School Science and Mathematics*, LI (December, 1951), 708–13.

Criticizes the exclusive use of the deductive method in the laboratory and suggests ways of securing pupil participation in raising and solving problems.

218. GRANT, MARTIN L. "How the Teacher's Literature Files Can Serve the Students in Laboratory and Classroom Work," *American Biology Teacher*, XIV (April, 1952), 83–90.

Suggests types of materials for the teacher to collect and ways of storing, cataloguing, and using them.

219. HARVEY, HELEN W. "An Experimental Study of the Effect of Field Trips upon the Development of Scientific Attitudes in a Ninth Grade General Science Class," *Science Education*, XXXV (December, 1951), 242–48.

Tells how to conduct field trips in which the objective is the development of a more scientific attitude. Presents results comparing two classes, one taking field trips and one experiencing the usual classroom procedures.

220. KRASNICAN, MILAN J. "The Need for Science Classroom Procedures in Thinking," *Science Education*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 123–25.

Presents an analysis of attitudes and abilities involved in scientific thinking and some suggestions for procedures focused upon the development of these abilities and attitudes.

221. LICHTENWALTER, M. C. "How To Succeed in the Study of Biology," *American Biology Teacher*, XIII (December, 1951), 180–82.

Presents a list of suggestions to be given to pupils in beginning biology.

222. MALLINSON, GEORGE G. "Some Implications for Using Films in the Teaching of Biology," *American Biology Teacher*, XIV (February, 1952), 37–40.

A review of recent studies in the field of biology related to effective uses of films.

223. MALLINSON, GEORGE G. "Science Education and World Understanding," *School Science and Mathematics*, LII (October, 1952), 531–38.

Shows how courses in biology, geography, and the physical sciences can be used to obtain a better understanding of world relationship.

224. MARTIN, W. EDGAR. "The Present Status of Instruction in General Biology," *American Biology Teacher*, XIII (November, 1951), 149–57.

Shows the trends in enrolment, areas stressed, nature of laboratory work, and use of supplementary aids, as revealed by figures collected by the Office of Education.

225. MILLER, MILES MAX, and DRESDEN, KATHERINE. "Kearny High Studies Evaporation and Humidity," *School Science and Mathematics*, LII (October, 1952), 549–55.

Describes a method of teaching science in which the work is planned and carried on by groups of students.

226. PANUSH, LOUIS. "How To Use Projects in Teaching High School Chemistry,"

School Science and Mathematics, LII (April, 1952), 291–99.

Presents examples of term projects worked out by students.

227. PELLA, MILTON O. "The Use of Laboratory Activities in Teaching General Science," *School Science and Mathematics*, LII (February, 1952), 119–25.

Lists the functions of the laboratory and illustrates each function with several examples.

228. READ, JOHN G. "Construction and Evaluation of a New General Science Test," *Science Education*, XXXV (December, 1951), 262–66.

Describes the construction of a general-science test based upon analysis of textbooks.

229. SMITH, HERBERT F. A. "A Determination of Principles Desirable for a Course of General Science at the Junior High School Level," *Science Education*, XXXV (December, 1951), 279–84; XXXVI (February, 1952), 32–47.

Presents a list of 118 science principles arranged in order of desirability and a list of experiments judged to be desirable for junior high school science.

230. STAFFORD, WAYNE A. "The Textbook versus Supplemental Material in Teaching Biology," *School Science and Mathematics*, LII (December, 1952), 737–42.

Presents data of an investigation in which the use of a basic textbook as a foundation for instruction is compared with use of supplemental material based on the same course outline.

231. VANCE, B. BERNARR. "Experimental and Laboratory Techniques," *American Biology Teacher*, XIV (March, 1952), 54–61.

Discusses the value of the laboratory in attaining the goals of science instruction in biology.

232. WASHTON, NATHAN S. "A Syllabus in Biology for General Education: II," *Science Education*, XXXVI (October, 1952), 227–37.

Describes a method of determining the importance of biological principles and gives a list of principles based on this method.

233. ZIM, HERBERT S. "Where Are We Now and Where Are We Going in Science Education?" *Science Teacher*, XIX (September, 1952), 161–67.

An unusually stimulating article which should be read by every science teacher.

MATHEMATICS

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234. BECKMANN, MILTON W. "How Mathematically Literate Is the Typical Ninth Grader after Having Completed either General Mathematics or Algebra?" *School Science and Mathematics*, LII (June, 1952), 449–55.

Summarizes a study of the gains made and level of achievement attained in the twenty-nine competencies listed in the Second Report of the Post-War Commission by ninth-grade Nebraska pupils who studied general mathematics and by others who studied algebra.

235. BETZ, WILLIAM. "The Place of Mathematics in Human Affairs, and Related Curriculum Problems," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLV (February, 1952), 81–88.

Discusses criteria that have been used in selecting curriculum content and makes suggestions regarding content for modern courses.

236. CAMBRERA, EMANUEL S., and MEDICI, HECTOR J. "The Teaching of Mathematics in the Argentine Republic," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (December, 1951), 529–36.

Contrasts teaching methods used in Argentina and those most frequently used in the United States.

237. COOPER, CHARLES M. "Mathematics in Engineering Research," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLV (May, 1952), 331–35.

Emphasizes the importance of early forming the habit of sizing up all problems—for example, estimating the answer—which the author refers to as "quantitative thinking."

238. DAVIS, DAVID R. *The Teaching of Mathematics*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Press, Inc., 1951. Pp. xvi+416.

A textbook on the techniques of teaching, the purpose of which is to exhibit the problems and duties facing the teacher and to suggest ways of handling them effectively.

239. EDWARDS, P. D.; JONES, P. S.; and MESERVE, B. E. "Mathematical Preparation for College," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLV (May, 1952), 321–30.

Lists mathematical needs of students for studying each of various subject fields in college.

240. FEHR, HOWARD F. "Teaching for Appreciation of Mathematics," *School Science and Mathematics*, LII (January, 1952), 19–24.

Analyzes factors involved in appreciation and illustrates these by use of the Golden Section.

241. GROVE, ETHEL L., and GROVE, EWART L. "An Experiment in the Integration of Mathematics and Science," *School Science and Mathematics*, LII (June, 1952), 467–70.

Discusses a practical plan for correlating work in mathematics with that in chemistry and physics.

242. HENDERSON, KENNETH B. "The Jewel and Its Setting," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLVI (December, 1951), 542–46.

Discusses ways in which teaching of mathematics has a contribution to make to three points of reference related to the objectives of secondary education, namely, social processes basic to group living, developmental needs of youth, and the values which define the democratic way of life.

243. HENDERSON, KENNETH B., and DICKMAN, KERN. "Minimum Mathematical Needs of Prospective Students in a College of Engineering," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLV (February, 1952), 89–93.

Gives the minimum list of topics with which entering students in engineering at the University of Illinois should be familiar and explains how the list was prepared.

244. JOHNSON, DONOVAN A. "A Report Card for Marking Achievement in Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLV (October, 1952), 423–26.

Recommends more complete reporting to parents than is possible when a single mark is used for achievement and suggests a form that may be used.

245. JONES, PHILLIP S. "The Teaching of Collegiate Mathematics," *School Science and Mathematics*, LII (October, 1952), 523–27.

Gives criteria for judging the effectiveness of classroom instruction.

246. KINNEY, LUCIEN BLAIR, and PURDY, C. RICHARD. *Teaching Mathematics in the Secondary School*. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xvi+382.

A textbook for teachers dealing with mathematics in modern life, historical background of the curriculum, present-day problems in instruction, and the teaching of various branches of the subject.

247. KRAFT, ONA. "Providing a Challenging Program in Science and Mathematics for Pupils of Superior Mental Ability," *School Science and Mathematics*, LII (February, 1952), 143–87.

Makes constructive suggestions for teaching mathematics to superior pupils.

248. MACDUFFEE, C. C. "What Mathematics Shall We Teach in the Fourth

Year of High School?" *Mathematics Teacher*, XLV (January, 1952), 1–5.

Recommends including introductory parts of analytical geometry and calculus in high-school courses.

249. MALLINSON, GEORGE G., and VAN DRAGT, HAROLD. "Stability of High School Students' Interests in Science and in Mathematics," *School Review*, LX (September, 1952), 362–67.

Analyzes changes in interest in science and in mathematics during four years of high school as indicated by scores on the Kuder Preference Record.

250. MOLLOY, THERESA, and OTHERS. "Concerning the Teaching of Second Track Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIV (December, 1951), 537–41, 546.

Makes suggestions for teaching classes of slow-learning pupils in mathematics.

251. NORRIS, E. T. "An English College Course Based on the Function Concept," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLV (November, 1952), 513–17.

Gives the broad outline of a course in beginning college mathematics designed for purposes of general education as well as for preparation for majoring in mathematics.

252. OLIVER, NINA. "The House That Geometry Built—A Plane Geometry Project," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLV (November, 1952), 518–21.

Explains a class project involving the construction of geometrical designs to cover the windowpanes of a classroom.

253. ORTH, ALLEN. "Mathematics and Manpower," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLV (October, 1952), 416–22.

Discusses the contributions that scientists and engineers make in our technological age and the prospective shortages of trained persons for the immediate future.

254. PECKMAN, EUGENE F. "Providing a Challenging Program in Mathematics and Science for Pupils of Superior Mental Ability," *School Science and Mathematics*, LII (March, 1952), 187–93.

Points out the need for providing training for superior pupils and the need for practical suggestions that are effective for attaining specific objectives.

255. REEVE, WILLIAM D. "What Price Factoring?" *Mathematics Teacher*, XLV (November, 1952), 497–502.

Makes a plea for eliminating most work in factoring from high-school courses except for the simplest cases which can be used to advantage by the pupils in problem-solving.

256. SKOLNIK, DAVID. "Let's Forget Mental Transfer," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLV (March, 1952), 161–67.

Advocates presenting geometry in such a way that the emphasis is on the mode of thinking rather than on the elements to which the thinking applies.

257. SKOLNIK, DAVID. "Mathematics Can Be Slanted To Teach Thinking," *Clearing House*, XXVI (May, 1952), 521–25.

Argues that mathematics teachers are the logical ones to spearhead the effort which teachers in many subjects must make to emphasize the teaching of reasoning in their courses.

258. WHITMAN, SOL. "We Can Dress Up General Mathematics," *School Science and Mathematics*, LII (March, 1952), 210–12.

Makes suggestions for motivating the classwork in general mathematics.

259. WILSON, J. DOUGLAS. "Mathematics: A Must for the Mechanic," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLV (January, 1952), 27–29.

Presents an analysis of the mathematics needed in certain skilled trades.

260. WREN, F. LYNWOOD. "The Merits and Content of a Freshman Mathematics Course," *School Science and Mathe-*

matics, LII (November, 1952), 595–603.

Proposes a list of basic principles on which a first-year college course in mathematics should be built.

261. ZANT, JAMES H. "Critical Thinking as an Aim in Mathematics Courses for General Education," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLV (April, 1952), 249–56.

Discusses objectives, content, and evaluation in mathematics courses designed to develop ability in critical thinking.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE[3]

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262. ALBRECHT, UDO. "Modern Languages Are a Vital Part of General Education," *German Quarterly*, XXV (January, 1952), 1–4.

Considers the role of modern languages in accreditation of a secondary school.

263. BECK, THEODORE T. "An Experiment in Teaching French by the Oral-cultural Approach Method," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (December, 1951), 595–601.

Reports mean achievement scores on the Co-operative French Test for classes taught by traditional methods and by the oral-cultural approach.

264. BERNARD, WALTER. "Texts and Classroom Methods in a Bilingual Reading Course," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 3–9.

Advocates the production of progressively graded parallel-translation textbooks to implement a method known to be effective in developing reading skills.

265. BRANDT, THOMAS O. "Student Broadcasts to Europe," *German Quarterly*, XXIV (November, 1951), 250–55.

Expresses enthusiasm for the outcomes of a project in which students prepared transcriptions for broadcast in Europe.

266. BROOKS, WENDELL S. "Chicago, Teeming with Foreign Languages," *School and Society*, LXXV (April 26, 1952), 259–60.

Points out that large segments of the population in cities such as Chicago speak and read languages other than English.

267. BUEHNER, WILLIAM J. "Language Study versus the Hydrogen Bomb," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (February, 1952), 80–83.

Reminds readers that agreement in human affairs is reached by linguistic processes and exhorts them to action.

268. DEGRAFF, THELMA B. "Quinquennalia of Summer Greek," *Classical Journal*, XLVII (December, 1951), 123–24.

Adapts the accelerated program of war years to the teaching of beginning Greek, with considerable success and satisfaction.

269. DETORT, FERDINA J. CAPPARELLI. "Community Reading," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (October, 1952), 279–81.

Explains the numerous advantages of community reading as a classroom technique.

270. D'HAUCOURT, GENEVIÈVE M. "Note sur la préparation et l'emploi des enregistrements," *French Review*, XXV (January, 1952), 192–98.

Describes enthusiastically the preparation, use, and advantages of recordings as *textes parles* to be used concurrently with written textbooks.

271. EOFF, SHERMAN. "Literary Reading and the Foreign Language Requirement," *Modern Language Journal* XXXVI (February, 1952), 96–98.

Makes a plea for more careful evaluation and selection of text materials in view of maturity levels of students and certain literary values.

[3] See also Item 616 (Turner) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

272. FOLEY, L. "Words vs. Language," *School and Society*, LXXVI (July 26, 1952), 49–53.

Concludes that the study of words "naturally and effectively comes *after* one has acquired an easy practical mastery of the *language*" and that learning a language is *not* a matter of "just learning words."

273. FRANK, JOHN G. "Learning Languages with the Tape That Talks Back," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (December, 1951), 616–18.

Calls attention to advantages of using a tape recorder in numerous classroom activities.

274. FREEMAN, STEPHEN A. "New Idea in International Co-operation: Middlebury College Foreign Language Schools," *Education*, LXXII (June, 1952), 684–92.

Presents the pioneering model of an American university granting graduate degrees to American students doing graduate study abroad under supervision.

275. FURNESS, EDNA LUE. "Techniques for the Teaching of Listening," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 124–28.

Discusses a number of variations of the aural method and suggests testing devices for measuring aural comprehension.

276. GAUDIN, LOIS S. "Foreign Languages and Job Opportunities," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (December, 1951), 602–8.

Demonstrates the vocational advantage of knowing a second language through an analysis of 608 "Help Wanted" advertisements in six Sunday editions of the *New York Times* in which knowledge of a language other than English was specified as a qualification.

277. GAUDIN, LOIS S. "Effective Use of the Tape Recorder," *French Review*, XXV (January, 1952), 236–37.

Extends a discussion of techniques for using recordings and suggests ways of scheduling for optimum utilization of time and equipment.

278. GAUDIN, LOIS S. "The Language Laboratory," *French Review*, XXV (February, 1952), 284–91.

Reviews the present status of the language laboratory and describes typical setups designed to serve different purposes. Concludes that even a small laboratory is better than no laboratory at all.

279. GIDUZ, HUGO. "Teaching Modern Foreign Languages," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (February, 1952), 65–67.

Portrays desirable qualities of prospective language teachers and makes a few suggestions concerning the problems confronting the beginning teacher.

280. GRAVES, MORTIMER. "All the Foreign Languages," *Education*, LXXII (June, 1952), 668–74.

Advocates early differentiation of curriculums and methods for students with different needs and objectives. Also urges the development of great quantities of learning materials devoted to specific ends.

281. GRIES, KONRAD. "Latin Word Order," *Classical Journal*, XLVII (November, 1951), 83–87.

Proposes to simplify and minimize syntax and illustrates the application of proposed principles.

282. HERBER, KATHARINE HARRIET. "One Brick in Babel," *Hispania*, XXXV (February, 1952), 101–2.

Shows how elementary-school children can acquire an elementary reading knowledge and some oral facility in Spanish as well as motivation for future study and a basis for international understanding.

283. HOEFER, L. A. "Administrative Problems in the Teaching of Modern Languages," *German Quarterly*, XXV (May, 1952), 139–43.

Indicates the interaction of many aspects of school administration and classroom

management as they influence the achievement of objectives.

284. JOHNSON, ROBERT B. "A Workable French Laboratory Program at Low Cost," *French Review*, XXV (January, 1952), 199–206.

Proposes careful planning of the laboratory program in the secondary school or college to effect maximum teaching efficiency at minimum cost.

285. KAULFERS, W. V. "Retooling the Profession in the Light of Modern Research," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (November, 1951), 501–22.

Declares a moratorium on factlessness, reviews research findings in several areas of the language arts, makes a series of recommendations, and suggests ways of implementing the recommendations.

286. KELLER, JEAN P. "The Language Laboratory—Tool or Toy?" *Hispania*, XXXV (May, 1952), 189–94.

Warns against certain abuses of laboratory equipment and suggests ways to make more effective use of equipment as teaching tools.

287. KRAUSS, P. G. "A Substitute for a German House," *German Quarterly*, XXV (May, 1952), 150–52.

Relates effective ways to use library space for making the study of language interesting, stimulating, and profitable.

288. KUEHNE, OSWALD R. "Family Names as a Motivation for the Study of Foreign Languages," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (November, 1951), 552–61.

Compiles a vocabulary list from family names found in directories of large cities.

289. MCGRATH, EARL J. "Language Study and World Affairs," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (May, 1952), 205–9. Same in *School Life*, XXXIV (June, 1952), 129–30, 140–42.

Records Commissioner McGrath's address to the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association in May, 1952. He proposes a complete reconsideration of the place of foreign-language-study in American elementary education and greater emphasis on language-study on the secondary levels. Responses to the address are published in *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (October, 1952), 287–96.

290. MARONPOT, RAYMOND P. "Let's Teach and Test Vocabulary on a One-Language Basis," *German Quarterly*, XXV (January, 1952), 26–32.

Enumerates various techniques for teaching vocabulary on a one-language basis and combines six types of questions in an objective test for measuring vocabulary achievement in accordance with the author's thesis.

291. MILLER, WILLIAM MARION (compiler). "American Doctoral Degrees Granted in the Field of Modern Languages in 1950–51," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (November, 1951), 567–74.

Lists degrees by name, major field, title of thesis, and date of receiving degree.

292. MORGAN, J. C. "Streamlined Latin," *Classical Journal*, XLVII (March, 1952), 231–34.

Proposes modifications in Latin word order to accelerate pupil progress and adapt the Latin tongue to current needs.

293. MOULTON, WILLIAM G. "Study Hints for Language Students," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (October, 1952), 259–64.

Duplicates materials prepared for students at Cornell University and should stimulate the preparation of learning aids by teachers in other places and at other educational levels.

294. MYRON, HERBERT B., JR. "Conversation Anew," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (May, 1952), 230–35.

Assesses the value of the conversational approach to language-teaching and specifies practical teaching methods and procedures

to facilitate aural comprehension and oral expression.

295. PARKER, FAN. "The Teaching and Development of Russian Vocabulary," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 135–36.

Surveys techniques and methods for teaching vocabulary in any language and calls attention to the possibilities of adapting method to objectives.

296. PEI, MARIO A. "Six Languages for One World," *New York Times Magazine*, (February 24, 1952), 18, 25. Reply by SHEROVER, M. *Ibid.* (March 23, 1952), 4.

Discloses a plan for improving communication by concentrating study on three major tongues in each of four geographic areas of the world, using six major languages.

297. PHILLIPS, W. T. "Let's Talk Sense about Grammar," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV (November, 1951), 575.

Deplores the de-emphasis of grammar in language courses.

298. PUSEY, NATHAN M. "A Summary Report of the Aspen Germanics Conference," *School and Society*, LXXV (January 12, 1952), 22–25.

Reports specific as well as general recommendations made at the conference held in 1949 under a grant from the American Council of Learned Societies. The major decision was that instruction in foreign languages should begin earlier in the educational system.

299. SÁNCHEZ, JOSÉ. "Linguafilms: Use of Filmstrips and Slides in Modern Languages," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (February, 1952), 77–79.

Gives pointers on the effective use of the filmstrip in conjunction with textbook or film. The author cites sources of realia, filmstrips, and slides of unusual interest.

300. SAPON, STANLEY M. "An Application of Psychological Theory to Pronunciation Problems in Second Language Learning," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 111–14.

Analyzes the linguistic stimulus-response pattern, particularly on the auditory level.

301. SHAEWITZ, LEONARD. "Sixth-Grade Spanish Is on the Air," *Hispania*, XXXV (May, 1952), 219–22.

Focuses attention on the sixth-graders who regularly broadcast their Spanish lesson to other elementary schools in Indiana.

302. STEIFEL, WALTER E. "Bricks without Straw—the Language Laboratories," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (February, 1952), 68–73.

Discloses worth-while objectives realized with the aid of the laboratory without any measurable loss of reading achievement or sacrifice of other objectives.

303. TYRE, C. A. "The Conversational Approach to Language Learning: An Evaluation and an Answer to Our Critics," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (February, 1952), 59–64.

States advantages of the common-sense conversational approach, along with a few disadvantages. The author would avoid extremes and advocates a balanced approach to language-teaching.

304. VAN EENENAAM, EVELYN, "Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology for 1950," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 39–56.

Refers to 294 contributions bearing on modern language methodology and classifies them under a variety of headings, among others: aims, aural-oral method, audio-visual aids, curriculum planning, evaluation, surveys, general language, grammar, international relations, motivation, psychology of learning, realia, and teacher training.

305. WASLEY, RUTH E. "Sources of Realia for the Teacher of French and Spanish," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 10–15.

327. *The Seasons*. 10 minutes, black and white. 1951.

Explains the movements of the earth in relation to the sun and the resultant causes of the seasons.

SCIENCE

328. *Dances of the Bees*. 20 minutes, silent, black and white. New York: Wilner Films and Slides, 1951.

Demonstrates Professor von Frisch's observations that "finder" bees communicate the location of food to other bees. Certain distinctively marked bees are observed returning from their flights and performing curious dances, thus reporting their findings to other bees.

329. *Development of a Frog*. 10 minutes, black and white. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1951.

Shows, through time lapse and photomicrography, the cell division of a frog egg.

330. *Life along the Waterways*. 11 minutes, color. Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopaedia Britannica Films Inc., 1952.

Shows the plants and animals which may be seen in a yearly cycle of life near a New England brook and river.

UNITED WORLD FILMS—EDUCATION, NEW YORK

331. *Human Skeleton*. 11 minutes, black and white. 1951.

Shows skeletal function in the support, protection, and movement of the body. As a human model moves body parts, animated diagrams and X-ray photography are imposed to demonstrate main skeletal parts.

332. *Muscular System*. 11 minutes, black and white. 1951.

The action of muscles in maintaining a body in standing and moving positions is demonstrated by a human model. The position, attachment, and function of muscle related to bones and joints are explained.

333. *Musical Waves*. 12 minutes, black and white. 1951.

Principles of vibration are demonstrated with notes from string, wind, and percussion instruments. The "laws of strings" and the principles governing overtones are also explained.

334. *Sound Waves*. 15 minutes, black and white. 1951.

Demonstrates that all sound stems from a vibrating body and that vibrations produce sound waves. The phenomena of wave motion, wave length, and frequency are analyzed, and the speed of sound in air, water, and solids is measured.

335. *Unlocking the Atom*. 20 minutes, black and white. 1951.

Demonstrates an atomic explosion in action. Background information is given of early knowledge of the atom and the contribution of leading scientists.

MATHEMATICS

336. *Parallel Lines*. 10 minutes, black and white and color. Hollywood: Johnson-Hunt Productions, 1951.

Explains the concept of parallel lines, illustrates the prevalence of parallel lines in industry and architecture, and gives specific instances of the application of the laws of parallel lines. Intended for use in tenth-grade geometry classes.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

ROBERT W. RICHEY, with contributions by MAXINE M. DUNFEE and ARTHUR HOPPE, *Planning for Teaching: An Introduction to Education.* New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xiv+422. $4.75.

Planning for Teaching by Richey and others is a textbook which represents the results of intensive experimentation by the authors and other faculty members at Indiana University for the purpose of developing an introductory course in education to be taken by all students planning to prepare for the teaching profession. The purpose of the authors in writing the volume is well stated as follows:

> A student in an introductory course in education should have many opportunities: (1) to become well oriented to the field of education, (2) to weigh critically the wisdom of entering the teaching profession, and (3) to plan his career comprehensively and with insight if he desires to enter the profession.
>
> This book should help teacher-education institutions to accomplish the above-stated functions of an introductory course in education to be taken by all students preparing to teach. The content of this book is focused primarily upon three major concepts: the planning of a career in education, the competencies required for teaching, and the function of education in our democratic society [p. vii].

The book is divided into five parts. Part I, "Some Aspects of Planning," introduces certain general principles which should increase the prospective teacher's understanding of, and skill in, planning, especially as it is related to education. Factors emphasized include potential values in teaching, competencies for teaching, certification and professional education of teachers, and personal growth toward teaching. Six steps in career-planning are suggested, which culminate with the listing of five elements in self-appraisal by means of which the student may examine his own abilities and qualifications as a prospective teacher.

Part II, "Some Economic Aspects of Teaching," presents advantages and disadvantages of the teaching profession as compared with other vocations. Among the economic factors thus considered are salaries, tenure, retirement, leave of absence, group insurance, and credit unions. Opportunities for both men and women in the various areas of education are discussed, and evidence is given regarding fields and subjects in which there is most likely to be an oversupply of teachers.

Part III, "Some Conditions and Trends in Our Public Schools," contrasts some characteristics of successful teachers with certain popular misconceptions regarding educators. The problem of community expectations of teachers is presented in such a way that it is likely to produce a wholesome attitude on the part of the prospective teacher toward such expectations. There is a brief historical sketch, which provides a background for an understanding of the plan of school organization and finance common in the United States.

Part IV, "The Education of Our Children," emphasizes the importance of wholesome teacher-pupil and teacher-community relations and the function of the teacher and the school in promoting social progress. By means of anecdotal records and recorded in-

terviews, the author brings out basic principles of learning and the place of the teacher and the school in setting the stage for bringing about desired changes in human behavior. Generalizations regarding community educative forces and their implications for teachers are presented in order to indicate preparations that should be part of the living resources of any new teacher in our time.

The last part summarizes the principles that have been developed and illustrated in previous chapters and helps the prospective teacher to apply these principles in planning his own professional preparation and in continuing his professional career.

This volume presents, in a concise and interesting way, principles and facts which are relative to a career in education. It provides many opportunities for the prospective teacher to become well oriented to the field of education, to weigh critically his qualifications and shortcomings, and to plan his career intelligently.

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WILLIAM O. BROOKS and GEORGE R. TRACY, *Modern Physical Science*. New York 17: Henry Holt & Co., 1952. Pp. xii+586. $3.80.

Modern Physical Science is a textbook for a physical-science course in the senior high school, preferably at the eleventh- or twelfth-grade level. It has been written for courses which are planned to emphasize general education in contrast to the usual specialized courses in physics or chemistry. There are sixteen units which cover, in general, the high points of physics and some applied chemistry, with a short unit each on earth science and astronomy. Brief units on electronics and on atomic energy are included. Each unit has from one to four or five chapters. In total, there are fifty chapters, each titled in the form of a question.

Practical applications to everyday living are stressed in all the units. While it is obvious that relatively few of the "consumer aspects of science" can be included in a textbook of less than six hundred pages, at least some important glimpses of science in action are provided. Among the applied topics included are short sections related to weather, water power, petroleum products, automobiles, airplanes, household chemicals, building materials, alloys, plastics, textiles, new fibers, medicines, cosmetics, and radio.

The book is well illustrated, both with excellent black-and-white photographs and with line drawings and diagrams of good sizes. Four pages of color diagrams are included with the chapter on color. The printing is arranged in two columns to each page. Phonetic aids are included for many words which might be difficult for students to pronounce, and at the end of each chapter is listed a vocabulary test on the new science terms used. At the end of each chapter there also appears a "quick quiz," consisting of two groups of essay questions, largely of the recall type—one for the average student and one for the "better than average student." Four to six "Interesting things to do" complete each chapter.

No laboratory activities are included or suggested for the students, other than a few relatively simple demonstrations which could be performed by selected students but are probably more suitable for instructor demonstrations. More suggested demonstrations as well as student laboratory-type experiences on related principles and applications would probably be welcomed by most instructors. Contact by students with some of the apparatus and devices of science relating to at least a few principles and applications seems desirable, even for general education. Whether this could be more appropriately done through a separate "manual" to accompany the textbook is another question.

While the authors state in the Preface that they "believe strongly in the scientific method and use it throughout the book," little use has been made of any suggestions,

exercises, or techniques for the teaching of scientific thinking. The few historical experiments which are included are not used so as to stress the scientific method and thinking involved.

Many instructors of physical-science courses will desire a great variety of suggested activities, projects, and resources for the wide range of individual interests and needs in the usual class of this type. The "Interesting things to do" section is, of course, a start in this direction, though it may be questioned that these optional assignments should be either for extra credit or for those students who want more work to do, as indicated in the Preface.

Instructors in physics, and in general-science courses particularly, also should find many of the applications and illustrations in this textbook useful as reference and supplementary material.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

BRUCH, HILDE, M.D. *Don't Be Afraid of Your Child: A Guide for Perplexed Parents.* New York 3: Farrar, Straus & Young, Inc., 1952. Pp. 298. $3.75.

BURTON, WILLIAM H. *The Guidance of Learning Activities: A Summary of the Principles of Teaching Based upon the Growth of the Learner.* New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952 (revised). Pp. xii+738. $5.00.

COOLEY, HAZEL. *Vision in Television: The Origins and Potentialities of Educational Television.* New York 18: Channel Press, 1952. Pp. 80. $2.50.

JELENKO, VICTOR. *The Republic of the Schools: An Educational Program for Democracy.* New York 16: Exposition Press, 1952. Pp. 224. $3.00.

JORDAN, A. M. *Measurement in Education: An Introduction.* New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. xii+534. $5.25.

VANDERBILT, ARTHUR T.; ADAMS, PHILIP RHYS; GOLDENSON, SAMUEL H.; KLUCKHOHN, CLYDE; and CARR, WILLIAM G. *Modern Education and Human Values.* Pitcairn-Crabbe Foundation Lecture Series, Vol. IV. Pittsburgh 13: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1952. Pp. 134. $3.00.

WARFEL, HARRY R. *Who Killed Grammar?* Gainesville, Florida: University of Florida Press, 1952. Pp. viii+88. $2.50.

WILES, KIMBALL. *Teaching for Better Schools.* New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. Pp. xiv+398. $4.00.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

FENTON, CARROLL LANE, and KAMBLY, PAUL E. *Basic Biology for High Schools.* New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1953 (revised). Pp. x+726.

HENRY, WILLIAM E. *Exploring Your Personality.* Life Adjustment Booklet. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. Pp. 48. $0.40.

IRWIN, LESLIE W. *My Safety and First-Aid Book.* Chicago 16: Lyons & Carnahan, 1952. Pp. vi+186. $0.80.

KITCH, DONALD E. *Exploring the World of Jobs.* Junior Life Adjustment Booklet. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. Pp. 40. $0.40.

LAW, FREDERICK HOUK. *Great Lives: Life Stories of Great Men and Women.* New York 10: Globe Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. x+362. $2.00.

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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

*

TIME TO TAKE A STAND

THERE IS a growing body of literature speaking out in behalf of greater emphasis on moral and ethical values in our schools. Presumably most adults are in favor of having young people develop a fine set of moral values, and parents largely seem agreed that the schools ought to get on with the matter. School people, too, have a growing sense of their inadequacy and ineffectiveness in this regard.

The question which is most often raised about the matter is: "How is it to be done?" But there is a prior question of some importance. It might be phrased something like this: "Are teachers intellectually prepared for the task? Has the kind of education they have received made them, individually and as a group, incapable of taking, or reluctant to take, one necessary step?" And that necessary step is, rather crudely put, making up their minds.

Writing in the *Forty-seventh Annual Report* of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Oliver Carmichael, the president of the Foundation, presents the issue in clear relief. Although his references are to higher education, they seem equally applicable to secondary schools. His entire discussion of "Neglected Areas in Education" deserves careful reading, and a few paragraphs taken from the broader context cannot do full justice to Carmichael's reasoning. Nonetheless, a few selections may encourage the reader to examine the full statement.

To illustrate his point that universities do not ask the right questions, he comments on several fields of study, among them, history and literature:

> The average history text which so often determines the tone of classroom instruction

is chiefly a recital of facts. It may betray certain biases of the author but in general it is objective, noncontroversial, a record of events. It recounts what happened—may even indicate how it happened—but often fails to ask, why it happened, what the meaning is, or what were the social, political, economic, or psychological factors that served as a background. This gets into the realm of opinion, and in this scientific age scholarship and instruction shun the speculative, cling to the solid ground of facts, venturing only tentative conclusions since all the facts are not in hand. The real issues are frequently sidestepped because no scientific proof is possible. . . .

In literature the goal is certainly understanding, appreciation and inspiration. Even there the analytical approach in considering a poem, a short story, an essay, or a novel is sometimes so emphasized as to obscure the deeper insights. Footnotes to the masterpiece of literature seem sometimes to attract more attention than the classic itself, with the result that the student may lose a budding taste for good literature rather than develop it. This sacrifice which the humanities make to the "scientific method" has been observed too frequently. Vivisection of a vital work of art, whether it be a poem, a picture, or a musical composition may result in the death of the masterpiece so far as the student is concerned.

Insistence upon observing and recording the facts, which began with the Renaissance, has been responsible for the major advances in science since that time and is an essential part of instruction in most fields. *But when observation and classification constitute not only the beginning but the end of instruction, the result is ineffective education* [italics inserted]. Where the tendency is to devote major attention to observation, to the gathering and recording of facts, to the what and the how rather than to the why of phenomena, a distressing gap in educational procedure appears. . . .

Perhaps this is but another way of suggesting the need for raising the real issues, for instruction that is problem-centered rather than subject-matter-centered, and for focusing attention less on facts and more on their implications. . . .

Failure to ask fundamental questions, concentration on knowledge rather than understanding, considering only the what and how instead of the why, and complete neutrality in instruction, are unrealistic. The dynamic quality of education is lost if the subject matter is not somehow related to life. The desire for knowledge, an important educational objective, is developed by bringing the student face to face with real problems in such way as to arouse a desire to resolve them.

It is not enough to understand the nature of justice. Teaching which fails to inculcate a "hunger and thirst after justice," as Ruskin put it, is lacking in vitality. Full knowledge of social theory in all its aspects —economic, sociological, and political—is of little use except it be accompanied by a sense of social responsibility. In the words of Aristotle, the end of philosophy is "not knowledge but action."

In four sharply worded paragraphs Carmichael demands of educational leaders and other citizens that they be willing to stand up and be counted:

Surely the effective citizen, and more particularly the leader, must be willing to stand up and be counted, to make a commitment, to throw his weight on the side of truth; in short, to enter the fight for the right as he sees it. Many of our current problems fail of solution because those who understand the needs best lack the courage to undertake the solution. It is probable that wholly neutral instruction weakens rather than strengthens the ability to make commitments, and yet an education which does not strengthen the power of conviction, that does not inculcate a sense of social responsibility, fails in its duty to society.

The absence of a clear and positive philosophy is the great weakness of the Western world in its fight against Communist ideology. But the humanists and social scientists, when asked to state the foundation for our faith in the ideals on which western civilization rests, plead their inability to agree upon the fundamentals of that faith. This raises the question whether the Western world will be able to excite the imaginations of men and capture their loyalties in the great debate now going on in the world if the foundations of its faith cannot be made explicit. The uncertain witness never gives convincing testimony.

The fact is no adequate effort has been made in our time to explore the areas of agreement or disagreement on fundamental issues. The cult of objectivity has influenced so profoundly the thinking, the attitude, the approach of scholars, that they have somehow never conceived it to be their task to provide the foundations for and the framework within which the design of western culture can be sketched. Until such an effort is made instruction in the humanistic social studies will be handicapped. We may observe social phenomena, analyze the facts, classify the data, and thereby gain some understanding of the forces at work in modern society, but we shall not achieve a systematic and comprehensive view of social structure without a more basic approach.

The widespread criticism of current educational practices and of educators is partly a reaction to the tension of the times but probably reflects also a vague realization that something is lacking in instruction. As someone has put it, "the total effect of the new education is to leave the child . . . without a set of values." This may result from undue emphasis upon objectivity and from the fact that no systematic and comprehensive view of social structure has been formulated.

In drawing his discussion to a close, Carmichael says, "Perhaps agreement upon even a few fundamental assumptions underlying the western mode of thought and way of life would provide the background for posing the real issues and for a fruitful attack upon them."

At no point does the author imply that what he is asking for is easy to do; nor is he, in the opinion of the editor overly optimistic about its being tried on a wide scale. After all, the noncommittal position is a safe and comfortable one, and one not easily left without making extensive preparation.

It is possible that the unwillingness to make commitments of which Carmichael writes is more prevalent among college teachers than among secondary-school instructors. But the unqualifiedly open mind is admired in our high schools, too. Perhaps before we go any further in wondering about the why and the how of teaching moral values in our schools, teachers should examine their own intellectual apparatus to see if it has strength and vitality enough to permit them to stand up and be counted; for, as Carmichael says:

Certainly instruction that seeks complete objectivity is not likely to touch the springs of motivation. It could easily add to rather than subtract from a sense of frustration. By the same token an education which concentrates on scientific analysis with little or no emphasis on synthesis is not likely to evoke an active response nor resolve a deep-seated doubt about the meaning of life. Certainly confusing facts with the truth, research with learning, and the search for knowledge with the spirit of inquiry is designed to disturb one who seeks ultimate answers rather than to ally his fears.

There Were Giants in the Earth in Those Days

Over a second cup of coffee the other evening a group of school men, by a process of association which that second cup so often facilitates, came to wonder about the passing from the scene, through retirement and other natural processes, of many of the giants of the educational profession. What principally concerned the conversationalists—themselves by no means unknown in the educational world—was that there seemed to be few, if any, men of outstanding stature to replace those who have withdrawn or will shortly withdraw from active service. Although it seems to be natural for mature adults to be hesitant about identifying greatness among younger men, the conversation in question did not reflect this middle-age myopia. Rather, it was a sincere but brief questioning of what appear to be the facts and of what to make of them.

Of course, the facts may not be facts at all. But where is another Judd or Cubberley or Dewey or Kilpatrick or Spaulding or Thorndike? Certainly some of our contemporaries may make the impact on the educational world which was made by such men as they. But to the coffee-drinkers that day the era of the giants seemed about run out. Why should this be so?

It cannot be that men are less able or less persuasive now than they were a generation ago. Nor is it that the profession is less tolerant of dynamic leadership than it once was. A possible explanation is that, in the days when such men as have been mentioned (and there were women giants, too) were making their names, the field of modern education was just being opened up and a vigorous pioneer had boundless scope for exercising his abilities. But increasingly the range has been fenced off, and the far side of the continent seems to be within sight. The scope of the identified problems is now so large and the body of dependable scholarship so great that it would take a giant indeed to exercise the broad influence which many of these men did. In fact, the material within many of the subdivisions of pedagogy has become so expansive that a man can hardly be an expert on more than one section of his own field.

It may also be that the present setting does not breed giants (a variant of the closed-range hypothesis). Conceivably, in a period such as ours, when the great need seems to be to learn how to make worth-while use of what is already known, leadership in the monumental sense is not stimulated, and its momentary eclipse can be argued as helpful rather than harmful.

Then, again, as the number of able and well-trained men and women in the profession has increased, it has become steadily more difficult for any star to outshine all others. Quite possibly, then, stars as bright as those which shone in yesteryear are now glowing and only seem less magnificent because the whole educational firmament is now more generally touched with brightness.

Another possibility is that, as scholarship in pedagogy has improved and become more widespread, collaborative activities have come to be more profitable than in former days when collaboration was less possible for the reason that there were few people to engage in collaborative activities. If this is true, then group endeavors of some magnitude should be giving the profession the leadership which formerly stemmed from a few dynamic individuals.

Which of these reasons proposed by the conversationalists is predominant is no great matter, for all are probably operative. The more important question is: What, if anything, can and ought to be done about the situation?

One does not produce prophets by saying, "Let there be prophets" or by bemoaning their absence. Nonetheless, a society can often take a few steps to encourage those of its members whose vision ranges farther than that of ordinary men. It would be interesting and worth while to conjecture what the education profession and the institutions supporting it might do to bring to positions of influence men and women really worthy of such influence. A few workaday possibilities come to mind.

Strong leadership is built on thought as well as talk, but many potential leaders are overwhelmed by the demands which are made on their time for talking, and subtracted from their time for thinking. A schedule of speeches, meetings, consultantships, hyphenated by airplane travel, makes serious contemplation an intellectual luxury which many well-known educators cannot afford. This is not said in reproach of them but in criticism of the pattern on which schools and universities have come to expect their faculty members to build their professional lives. To be sure, a leader must appear in the public eye occasionally, but the stuff of his leadership wears thin if he has no time in his own study. What can be done to relieve this Chatauqua-circuit existence and who should provide the relief are hard questions to answer. A start, however, could be made by many schools and universities that seem to say, in effect, to their educational specialists, "Get out there and lead, and the way to do it is to take as many speaking engagements as possible."

The opportunity for vigorous leadership might also be improved if schools and universities prized the excellent teachers on their faculties more highly than many do. The men and women we know who have set the tone for our present educational endeavors were all outstanding performers in the classroom. Teaching art was not the only basis of their influence, but it seems to have been a common and necessary one. They made their students different and better people largely because of what went on in their classes. But the modern faculty member gets his promotions through publications, research, and public appearances. These are obviously not to be belittled. The argument is that first-rate teaching should be recognized for what it is—the first responsibility of every teacher.

There is no need to extend this inquiry further here, but the complex of questions raised deserves the thoughtful attention of some other school people who can find time for conversation and a second cup of coffee between trains or planes.

World History and Curriculum Organization

Writing in the July, 1952, issue of the *Journal of General Education*, Ellsworth Faris, Jr., instructor in history in the Chicago Teachers College, discusses a question with which social-studies teachers and curriculum makers have long wrestled: "Do We Want 'World History'?" While his particular interest is in history as taught at the college level, much of what he has to say is equally applicable in secondary schools. For many years the curriculum of our secondary schools has included courses called "world history." Such courses, as everyone knows, have consisted mainly in the history of the Western world. In recent years there has been the understandable urge to make such courses more inclusive and, in fact as well as in name, histories of the world. A common consequence of responding to this urge is the production of confused students and unhappy teachers. The frequent explanation for this unfortunate outcome is that there is too much to do in a year. This unquestionably is true. But even so, conscientious teachers have a feeling that they have not done well what desperately needs doing. Faris' argument should help to relieve that guilt feeling.

He does not argue with the point that citizens of the modern world need to understand distant peoples; he agrees that we need broadly informed citizens. He does, however, question the validity of trying to give this world outlook through the medium of a world-history course for Freshmen (college Freshmen in this case, but the same doubts may be raised regarding the usual ninth- or tenth-grade course). After noting the usual reasons for the studying and teaching of history, many of which are not peculiar to that field alone, Faris goes on to say:

> The main objective of the history course is, then, the orientation and self-understanding of the student as a member of our culture, our tradition, with our creeds and faiths. This is the one aim of history which is peculiar to it, and it is one which seems better accomplished through history than through the other branches of the study of man. And it is fundamentally a moral aim.

Faris continues by observing that history as a humanistic study should be characterized by unity of structure —and the world as a unit, in any other than a geographic or geologic sense, has come into existence only in very recent times. Faris, in arguing for concentration on occidental history in the introductory course in history, does not rule out the consideration of contacts between the West and other parts of the world in bygone years. "But to discuss contacts . . . is one thing, and to try to make [all] cultures part of the same central narrative theme is something else." Students do need knowledge of oriental and other

civilizations, but Faris believes that such knowledge is better obtained (at least at the level where education is still general) through other social sciences, since for most people the need consists mainly in a need for better understanding of present conditions. The author says in conclusion:

> As we approach the present, we can broaden the scope of our course until, in the nineteenth century, occidental history may be seen as a true part of a larger whole, where it was in the past a more autonomous (not isolated) development of certain particular peoples. This seems to represent historical reality more faithfully than does the assertion that, because all mankind is now bound together intimately in a common fate, it has always been interdependent to the same degree. This very contrast between earlier relative self-sufficiency and present close interrelationship is one of the most significant facts to be presented. We cannot present it by pretending that the relationship has always been equally close.

This line of reasoning may not commend itself to every historian and every social-studies teacher. And yet, something must be done to reduce the growing complexity of general-history courses if they are to be more than story-telling operations. Furthermore, the basis that Faris' distinctions give for limiting to the Western world what is advertised as a "world-history" course is intellectually more satisfying than is the more common basis that the textbook covers only the Western world.

It is the editorial writer's belief that the same type of analysis could profitably be applied to some of the other instructional areas in our schools. The expansion of curriculums to include problems and content heretofore neglected and the breaking-through of established boundaries between fields have been wholesome indeed. Yet many thoughtful teachers are beginning to think that this emulsifying of the curriculum was not exactly what the doctor ordered. Formlessness in curriculum organization is hardly a suitable criterion for quality of that organization. There must be some rational compromise between the position that the teacher is concerned only with that which is traditionally included in the field of his specialization or teaching assignment and the position that, since all knowledge is one and children come in wholes, everything must be treated in every course. What the solution is, your editor does not dare to propose. What he does propose, however, is that this is a thoroughly relevant question to raise and think about.

Research Needed in Nonverbal Communication Skills

No great amount of imagination or experience is required to identify items for an almost unlimited list of educational problems and processes which are seriously in need of further study and research. Every thesis writer carefully points out a number of matters to which those who follow in his footsteps might well devote their investigative talents. And every professor has his own file of significant projects on which he happily draws whenever he can lay his hands on a malleable prospect in the form of a graduate student. The available list,

then, is no doubt long enough to satisfy all practical needs. But editorial license may permit the present holder of that license to comment on the needs and possibilities of an educational area which has received little systematic attention.

While the great bulk of human communication is handled by written and spoken words, no small amount is cared for by signs, symbols, and other visual or oral representations. Although the term is far from precise, the use of this class of communication methods and materials can be called "nonverbal" communication. Many of these nonverbal media are highly formalized, as is the case with maps, graphs, cross-sections, and so on. Others have local or cultural meanings only. An evident example of the latter are gestures of all kinds—a motion of the head which in this country indicates assent means "No" in Iran. But whether such nonverbal methods are local or international in their use and meaning, no one can fully understand his fellows without being able to understand the nonverbal instruments that they employ. And all communication would be slowed down, and probably be made less precise, were these to be abandoned. In spite of their evident importance, the school curriculum seldom gives organized and comprehensive attention to these instruments, and research on the learning and teaching of nonverbal communication materials and procedures is scant.

To be sure, they are not completely neglected. Social-studies teachers do something about map-reading; mathematics teachers hope that their students will be able to draw reasonable conclusions from various kinds of graphs; and so on. Nonetheless, much that teachers do in these and other areas is based on what their good sense and textbook-writers suggest be done rather than on any careful investigation of how such material is best learned. In passing, it is fair to conjecture that the material in many textbooks is handled by many students less easily than it ought to be for the reason that the presentation hinges on nonverbal materials which children are supposed to be able to understand although no one has ever bothered to find out whether they really can.

The use of cross-section and other nonrepresentational diagrams in science is a case in point. In books for about the junior high school level, science authors begin to expand their verbal explanations through the use of diagrams of various sorts. No doubt, science teachers do their best to help their students grasp the significance of such diagrams, but many of us who have been science teachers remember that we were disturbed and vaguely irritated to find how much difficulty our classes had with "simple drawings that anybody ought to be able to interpret." Obviously, simplicity in appearance is no more certain a guide to understanding in the nonverbal area than is simplicity with words.

The fact of the matter seems to be that nonverbal methods and materials need as much direct and developmental teaching as do reading and

speaking in the usual sense. The easy recommendation is that folks who are working on the improvement of curriculums in communication skills should give more thought and attention to nonverbal practices. But while this is true, it is equally true that scholars whose research interests are in the field of communication need to give practitioners some solid ground to stand on in their curriculum-making activities.

"Would You Care to Buy an Ad?"

An attentive ear at this season readily picks up the groans of storekeepers and other businessmen as they see their doors pushed open by eager adolescents determined to get the price of a full-page advertisement but willing to settle for an eighth if that is the best they can get. After all, the fate of the yearbook hangs in the balance. The same ear hears wails and complaints from the teachers who have been assigned the unhappy task of serving as faculty sponsors for the books. Photographers and printers despair even though they are customarily well rewarded for their low moments. Subscription committees are berating reluctant subscribers, and student friendships of long standing are shattered over disagreements about the color of the cover. The strange and unsettling fact about the whole matter is that these agonies have been going on for generations.

Perhaps this annual suffering builds character in the students, a sense of responsibility, and group spirit, but, if it does, these gains come about so subtly that they seldom are apparent to the unaided eye. It has been said that participants in the enterprise strengthen their command of communication skills, have an opportunity to cultivate their sense of good taste, and get firsthand experience with our system of free enterprise. This could be true, but is it?

These uncordial words do not come from an opponent of school-publication activities. On many occasions the writer has spoken and written in strong support of these activities as educationally worth while. Furthermore, he is not unalterably opposed to the annual publication in any and all forms. But surely there must be more honest and educationally sound bases for the production of school books and magazines than the essentially fraudulent ones on which a majority of yearbook plans now seem to be based. If there are not, schools should cleanse their hands and hearts of the business as soon as they possibly can.

Such criticisms of school annuals as are implied here are by no means new, for no doubt the faculties in most of the schools in the land express them in one form or another at least once a year. The difficulties in the way of breaking the tradition are equally well known. It takes bold and imaginative leadership and a resolute faculty to bring this activity once more within the limits and discipline of proper educational objectives and methods.

The preparation and support of school yearbooks often occupy a position strikingly parallel to that which intercollegiate football is alleged to

hold in many colleges. It has an amateur cloak to cover a professional body. The yearbook purports to be the product of student work, but actually it is produced, in large measure, by faculty members with an underwriting by local merchants. Perhaps the solution is for a school or a community that feels strongly the need for a book of pictures and comment to allow one or more staff members the time to do the job and to give them proper recognition for having done it. Let it be, openly, a professional piece of work. And let it be paid for from public funds as is any other public relations release.

Useful Publications

Advice on staying in school

A pamphlet entitled *Stay in School* published by the United States Navy may be one of the most influential documents that a high-school counselor could have in advising boys and girls who are determined to call it quits so far as schooling is concerned. The written style is lively, to say the least, and a major part of the area of the thirty-two pages is used to extend the written remarks in nonverbal fashion—in cartoons, that is. As the unidentified author says: "This is not a textbook. It will not assist you in the correct use of English, grammar, rhetoric, or lexicography. Its literary style is not recommended for oral or written school reports, themes, term papers, or narratives." But as communication to adolescents, it seems to your editor to be a very effective document. At least, if it is left around where it can be seen by students, it is likely to be picked up and read, and that is more than can be said for a great deal of advisory material aimed at high-school students. *Stay in School* can be obtained at naval recruiting stations.

Leading a conference

At the risk of seeming to be unduly influenced by an admiral or by spritely writing and cartoons, the editor would like to make note of another Navy publication—not a new one but one that few school people seem to have heard about. This brochure, aimed at mature readers, is called *Conference Sense* (Navpers 91139). Presumably the pamphlet was prepared originally to guide and reassure naval officers confronted with the cheerless prospect of presiding at a meeting, but the contents are equally applicable to anyone who is about to draw his chair up to the head of the table and call the meeting to order. The purchase of enough copies of this booklet to cover a faculty and school board would be an excellent investment for every school. The Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., distributes them at twenty cents each.

A journal for workers with adults

With all the publications which appear regularly in the educational field, it is understandable if one views the appearance of a new journal with a "ho-hum" attitude—and more so if the title of the magazine has a cliché-like sound. What this is leading up to is a public apology for

the private reaction of the editor when he first saw a copy of *Adult Leadership*, now in its first year of publication. This periodical is really worth reading regularly.

Adult Leadership is put out by the Adult Education Association under the editorship of Malcolm S. Knowles. Its development was made possible by a special grant to the association by the Fund for Adult Education. Although the magazine is intended, in the first instance, to be of help to men and women working in the adult-education area, its contents thus far seem equally applicable to anyone confronted with responsibility for group activities at any level. The December, 1952, issue, for instance, concentrates on the problems involved in the improvement of large meetings, and heaven only knows that most of them can stand improving. The price of the issue is well spent if for only the eight-page "Tool Kit," which is loaded with practical ideas on the organization and management of big gatherings.

Adult Leadership is published at 743 North Wabash Avenue, Chicago 11, Illinois. The cost is four dollars a year for eleven issues.

Workshop in Reading

A workshop for teachers, supervisors, administrators, and reading clinicians is announced by the Department of Education of the University of Chicago. The first four days, June 29 through July 3, 1953, will be combined with the annual reading conference. The theme of the conference and workshop is "Corrective Reading in Classroom and Clinic." Workshop participants will continue intensive study through July 24.

Topics to be considered in the workshop are dependent on the problems which each participant wishes to solve. Activities will include discussions, demonstrations, guided reading, and reports. Observations of the teaching of reading in the classrooms of the Laboratory Schools and in the College Basic Reading Skills classes are part of the program. The Reading Clinic program will also be observed. A collection of sample tests and published materials appropriate for deficient readers at all achievement levels will be available.

The workshop will provide for separate sections at the elementary-school, high-school, and college levels and for reading clinicians. A leader prominent in corrective reading will be responsible for each section. The workshop staff includes Albert J. Harris, William S. Gray, George Spache, and Helen M. Robinson.

Registration in the workshop is for one and one-half course credits. Living accommodations may be secured at Burton-Judson Courts, a university dormitory.

Since registration in each group will be limited so that all members may participate actively, applications for admission should be submitted at an early date. Further information may be obtained from Helen M. Robinson, University of Chicago, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

Warren C. Seyfert

Who's Who for March

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by Warren C. Seyfert, director of the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago and associate professor of education. John M. Parsey, staff associate of the Midwest Administration Center, Cooperative Program in Educational Administration, located at the University of Chicago, and John K. Friesen, director of public relations, Manitoba Pool Elevators, Winnipeg, Manitoba, write of the development of the community school in Canada—a folk school, patterned on the Scandinavian model, which meets the needs of young rural adults and interacts with the community to the mutual advantage of both. Ralph Garry, assistant professor of educational psychology at Boston University, describes the introduction of sociodrama into a high-school classroom, pointing out and explaining some of the techniques and situations and the students' reactions to them. Eugene L. Gaier, research associate in psychology, Stewart Jones, assistant professor of education, and Ray H. Simpson, professor of education, all at the University of Illinois, explore some of the variables which are believed to influence the kinds and the amounts of teacher resourcefulness in attacking classroom problems. Dwight L. Burton, assistant professor of education at Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida, compares three methods of teaching spelling to high-school students, classifies the types of spelling errors most often made, and gives some suggestions for improvement of spelling. The selected references in the various subject fields have been prepared by the following persons: Homer J. Smith, head of the Department of Industrial Education, University of Minnesota; Naomi Keller, teacher of home economics in the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago; Edwin A. Swanson, professor in the Division of Business, San Jose State College, San Jose, California; V. Howard Talley, assistant professor of music at the University of Chicago; Robert D. Erickson, teacher of art in the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago; D. K. Brace, chairman of the Department of Physical and Health Education at the University of Texas; and Kenneth D. Norberg, associate professor of education and co-ordinator of audio-visual services at Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California.

Reviewers of books Frank S. Albright, supervisor of secondary education, Gary public schools, Gary, Indiana. Leonard V. Koos, professor of education, University of Chicago. Gladys L. Borchers, professor of speech and education, University of Wisconsin.

FOLK SCHOOLS IN CANADA

JOHN M. PARSEY
University of Chicago

JOHN K. FRIESEN
Winnipeg, Manitoba

*

UPON realizing that education carries the power to change both itself and the society which nurtures it, many educators turned away from the concept of the traditional school. In its place they developed the idea of a community school, based on the belief that progress toward the ideal of a truly democratic society is the sum of the increments produced by the interaction of school and society. The community school grows out of, and becomes a part of, the life of its community. In growing, it changes and improves community living, and this, in turn, acts to change and improve the school.

SCHOOLS FOR THE PEOPLE

By its very nature, the community school in operation is, and must be, as varied as the conditions which produce it. Moving through an endless series of interactions with the community, this kind of school is, at any particular time and place, an integral part of the community which it is striving to change, while, at the same time, being itself changed by the forces it releases. In Canada the conditions have been such that the community-school concept is being developed both within the systems of public schools and outside of them. Within the public school systems the community-school movement is attempting to achieve a closer integration of school and community. Outside the public school systems the movement is beginning to develop a new kind of educational enterprise. Deriving its popular name, "folk school," or "school for the people," from the Scandinavian schools which inspired it, this new enterprise is becoming increasingly successful in adapting to Canadian conditions some of the principles and practices of the Scandinavian folk high schools.

FOLK SCHOOLS IN MANITOBA

The social and economic conditions which stimulated interest in the possibilities of the folk school in Manitoba were, in large measure, common to every Canadian province. The case of Manitoba, then, can serve as a specific example, illustrating many of the typical elements of background, many of

the early stages of development, and many of the current practices and procedures which characterize the emerging pattern of folk schools in Canada.

Background of the folk schools in Manitoba.—Springing as much from economic causes as from a desire to improve the quality of living in rural communities, the folk schools in Manitoba began, in 1940, an educational task that has proved to be rewarding both for the educators and for the students. The progress that has been made can be more fully understood and appreciated when viewed against the social and economic background of the period.

The depression years 1930–40 left their mark of disappointment on the lives of farm families everywhere. Heavy debts on land and losses in marketing and distributing through private trade channels resulted in the establishment of farmer-owned businesses which supplied service at cost. After consolidating their business operations, several of the service co-operatives carried on limited programs of education.

In the late thirties, also, the emergency Youth Training Program, sponsored jointly by the provincial and the federal governments, provided a variety of short educational courses for rural youth. Thousands of young Canadians took advantage of this opportunity to learn a little about improving rural life. In addition, farm clubs of various kinds, supervised by university agricultural extension services, continued to offer year-round training through farm projects.

Although the services of the co-operatives, the government, and the universities filled a vital need, a large majority of farm youth throughout the depression saw farm life as a life of uncertainty and hardship, and many of the younger people migrated to cities and towns. With the outbreak of World War II in September of 1939, there was a great increase in the farm-to-city migration. Large numbers of young men and women from farming communities found employment in war industries; many others enlisted in the armed forces. The exodus of young people weakened the rural-education programs. The farm clubs suffered a severe setback, and the Youth Training Program was discontinued. The rural family-group system of life was seriously disrupted. Existing patterns of living were being changed by the weakening of home and church, on the one hand, and by an increasing moral and economic independence, on the other.

The year which marked the beginning of World War II also marked the revival of the provincial farmers' federation. Known originally as the United Farmers of Manitoba, the organization had enjoyed an initial period of great popularity followed by a long period of decline. In June, 1939, a new farm organization, the Manitoba Federation of Agriculture, was formed. This group reorganized in 1945 as the Manitoba Federation of Agriculture

and Co-operation, under a constitution which contained a clause calling for the stimulation of "an active interest in the co-operative movement and a knowledge of co-operative principles and practices, both as a way of doing business and as a way of living and working together in town and country."

At first the federation concentrated its efforts on co-operative education carried on through locally organized study groups. The nucleus of each group was the neighborhood, and the emphasis was upon study for action. These study-action groups succeeded in arousing a new interest within the federation and, at the same time, brought to light the need for a more comprehensive and liberal program of education for rural youth.

The federation decided to attempt to meet this newly identified need through folk schools. Several of Manitoba's agricultural leaders had had firsthand experience with the folk schools of Denmark and other Scandinavian countries. The provinces of Saskatchewan, Ontario, and Alberta had been experimenting with adaptations of the Scandinavian folk-school idea for several years. Profiting by the knowledge and experience available, the Manitoba folk schools adopted some of the principles and practices of the European model and developed a curriculum and a method of operation in keeping with the particular conditions existing in Manitoba.

Objectives of the Manitoba folk schools.—Broadly stated, the objectives of the folk schools are to make young people aware of the part they can play in community building, to develop in them ability to express their thoughts with ease and vigor, and to release the energy and latent talents of youth in order to bring about a richer personal development. More specifically, the aims are:

To awaken a community consciousness and a feeling that young people have a part to play in molding society

To develop an understanding of the co-operative movement in its economic aspects

To demonstrate co-operative living through group experience

To develop the individual's confidence and ability through public speaking and through participation in the community endeavors of the school

To imbue students with the will to study for action

To create, in all activities, a spirit of genuine fellowship through significant social experiences

Having their origins in the co-operative movement, the Manitoba folk schools tended to emphasize the philosophy and practice of co-operation, not in the narrow economic sense, but in the wider sense of seeing co-operation as a way of life.

A pattern of operation.—The first folk school was organized in Manitoba in 1940. Early in the planning it had been realized that it would not be possible to establish permanent schools of the Danish type, and traveling schools of the kind developed in Sweden were

adopted. The early schools operated under the handicap of limited funds, an untested program, and a lack of understanding which bordered on hostility on the part of some of the communities in which the schools were held. These difficulties were gradually overcome, and the following pattern of operation was developed:

> Local arrangements for a folk school are made by the people in the community. In general, the local co-operative society takes the initiative in arousing public interest and in explaining the purposes and values of the folk school. When sufficient local support has been obtained, the dates for the week of the school are set by consultation with the Manitoba Federation of Agriculture and Co-operation. The local group then assumes the responsibility for renting a building, arranging for kitchen and dining facilities, providing some equipment and furniture, hiring a housemother, enrolling and billeting students, and providing local publicity.
>
> The provincial federation assumes much of the cost of the folk schools by providing the necessary staff and study aids. It also pays for the services of the housemother and a part of the cost of billeting students. Actual operating costs are not high as much voluntary aid is recruited. In general, student fees at the rate of ten dollars for the week's session cover most of the actual operating costs. Usually, about half of the students are partly or wholly sponsored by various local organizations.

A folk school is intended for out-of-school young adults. Although exceptions are made, men and women between the ages of fifteen and thirty may attend. There are no educational requirements, but it has been found that about 90 per cent of the students have completed some high-school work. Student enrolment has varied from eleven to forty-three, but experience has shown that twenty to twenty-five students, fairly evenly divided as to sex, form the best working group.

The spirit of the folk school.—The folk school is organized around the theme of democratic group-living. Perhaps the most important offering of the school results from its type of organization. Almost every student has opportunities to play the roles of both leader and follower. Informal discussions, free debates, group-study assignments, and the air of complete informality draw out the efforts of even the most retiring students. The team spirit finds expression in the activities of the student council, the recreation groups, and even in the work of the committees which help in preparing food and washing dishes. Something of the home atmosphere is also present in the folk school. The housemother is always selected for her ability to deal with young people. Student committees, as members of the "family," help her with the housekeeping duties.

A typical folk school program.—Every folk-school program features a thought-provoking study of vital social, economic, and rural community problems. A study of farm organizations and the history, development, and principles of the co-operative movement form a large part of the curriculum. Education, health, recreation, and agricultural problems are discussed. The students gain experience in public speaking and in discus-

sion-group techniques. Highly idealistic discussions of moral and social issues invariably receive the most thought-provoking response of the students and seem to leave behind lasting and worth-while personal impressions. The program is rounded out by informal recreational activities, including music, group singing, folk dancing, dramatics, and sports.

The week's program of the folk schools includes visits to community co-operatives, educational and cultural institutions, factories, recreation centers, and private homes. The church always plays a significant part in the program. The students observe a daily period of worship, and on Sunday the school attends one of the local churches. In some communities, where no Sunday services are held, the students invite the townspeople to attend worship at the school. Religious observance is nondenominational, and all students participate.

Community leaders are invited to take part in the activities of the folk school as speakers, resource persons, and discussion leaders. Civic and municipal officials, managers of co-operatives, local business and professional men, educators, clergymen, and private citizens are usually willing to give time and effort to the school. Representatives of groups and agencies outside the community visit the folk school to contribute the special gifts and insights of their art, science, or professional calling. The list of visitors includes representatives of provincial and dominion co-operatives, colleges and universities, the Manitoba government, labor unions, industrial and social organizations, the National Film Board, the press, and radio.

Commencement for the folk school is known as "Neighbor Night." On the final evening of the week, the students invite the townspeople to the school's closing banquet. All arrangements for the evening's activities are made by the students, and a student chairman presides over the formal proceedings. Typically, the program consists of a review of the activities of the school, an address by a visiting celebrity, and fill-in items that give the students an opportunity to demonstrate their talents. The evening is brought to a close by folk dancing, in which everyone participates.

When the folk schools were first organized, little educational material in a form suitable for the schools was available. The Manitoba Study Group Committee, assisted by funds from the provincial government and the Manitoba Federation of Agriculture and Co-operation, published a series of discussion pamphlets for this purpose. These pamphlets, together with study kits containing reference and working materials, formed the basic study aids for folk-school students. This core of material was later supplemented by films and reading matter from a central library.

Advanced leadership schools in Manitoba.—The increasing recognition and acceptance of the folk schools and their value to rural young people and to their communities led to an ex-

pressed desire for more comprehensive schools of this kind. In 1947 the first of a series of three-week "advanced leadership" schools was organized. Patterned after the folk schools, the leadership schools attempted to awaken in young people an awareness of their own potentialities; to acquaint young people with the principles of the co-operative movement and the satisfactions of the co-operative way of life; and to inspire in young people the desire for community service and leadership and to equip them with some of the information and techniques by which this desire might be fulfilled.

The organization and the operation of both folk and leadership schools are much the same, but the leadership schools offer more extensive programs. Basically, they provide for study and discussion in four problem areas: social and economic (history of the farm movement, farm-labor relations, currency problems, economic systems, etc.); cultural (aspects of drama, art, music, and handicrafts); physical (physical and social recreation); and practical (agricultural arts and sciences, home-making, etc.). The areas or aspects considered at any particular leadership school vary according to the needs and interests of the students. The practical difficulty of arranging for a large number of resource leaders makes it necessary to adjust the program in some cases.

Appraising Manitoba's folk and leadership schools.—The folk schools are completing twelve years, and the leadership schools six years, of service. During these periods, 79 one-week folk schools have enrolled over 1,500 students, and 10 three-week leadership schools have enrolled some 250 students. A comprehensive appraisal of achievement has not been attempted, but certain changes, attributable at least in part to these schools, may be noted.

Follow-up contacts with former students show that a high per cent are active in community affairs. Organizing study groups and community clubs, sponsoring local recreation and entertainment projects, leading welfare drives, holding offices on local boards and committees, participating in radio forums and other broadcasts, helping with folk and leadership schools, and representing their communities at regional and provincial conferences and conventions are among the kinds of leadership activities that are often engaged in by former students of these schools.[1] Former students have been very active in raising funds to establish a permanent folk school. Crawford Park, a camp site on Clear Lake with buildings to accommodate about sixty people, was purchased in 1948. Expansion and development, largely by voluntary labor, have proceeded steadily. The first leadership school at Crawford Park was held in 1949.

It has been the contention of the founders of the folk and the leadership

[1] *Report of the Board of Directors to Delegates to the Annual Convention, June 24, 25, 26 and 27, 1952*, p. 34. Winnipeg, Manitoba: Manitoba Federation of Agriculture and Co-operation, 1952.

schools that these schools are not completely dependent upon the length of courses or on the subject matter selected. Their major values derive from the inspiration given and the enthusiasm aroused. By providing opportunities for meaningful experiences in study and in group leadership, the schools instil confidence in the individual and arouse in him an awareness of greater social power and responsibility. Idealistic youth is also shown, at least in part, how to apply its energies in meeting the challenges of community living. In the belief of the founders, the values that can accrue from an aroused desire to contribute to community life added to some knowledge of how to go about it can scarcely be overemphasized.

FOLK SCHOOLS ACROSS CANADA

Some work, either directly or indirectly related to the folk-school concept, is being carried on in every province in Canada. Most of the provincial governments sponsor youth and adult programs of on-the-job and leisure-time education. The Dominion-Provincial Youth Training Plan, developed during the depression years, has often come close to the heart of the folk-school ideal. The schools selected for description in the paragraphs which follow are intended to serve as examples illustrating the beginnings out of which folk-school patterns may emerge. They were chosen because they show how some of the principles and practices of the Scandinavian folk schools are being consciously or unconsciously adapted to Canadian conditions and because they seem to indicate what the term "folk school" is coming to mean in Canada.

Developments in Saskatchewan.—The first schools to embody some of the ideals and methods of the folk schools were held in 1928. They were sponsored by various co-operative and educational organizations and operated under the leadership of a provincial committee, which drew up the broad plans and worked with local groups in organizing the school programs. Except for the depression years 1931–37, new and improved schools have been held each year in various parts of the province. The major educational efforts of these schools center in the areas of community leadership and co-operation. The curriculums are heavily weighted with content dealing with the philosophy and operating principles of co-operatives. A measure of balance is retained by the inclusion of such features as community tours, recreation, demonstrations of farm machinery and farm operations, films, and amateur radio broadcasts. Typically, these one-week schools are community centered, largely community planned, and draw on community resources for leadership and working materials. They enrol only adult students, many of whom are sponsored by rural organizations of various kinds.

Folk schools in Ontario.—Ontario's folk schools were an outgrowth of short courses on co-operatives and the Community Life Training Institutes

sponsored by various provincial colleges and universities. The first folk school was held in 1939. The movement lapsed during the war years but was revived in 1947. At the present time, the folk schools in Ontario are taking on new life under the leadership and stimulation of the Ontario Folk School Council.

In purpose, organization, curriculum, and method, the Ontario folk schools follow a pattern much like that being developed in Manitoba. They are sponsored by provincial and local agricultural, co-operative, educational, and community organizations. They enrol adults only and plan their programs largely around the theme of "study for action." As far as possible, local leadership and resources are used in planning and operating the schools.

A recent development of significance to the folk-school movement was the establishment of the John Madsen Folk School on Cherry Hill Farm near Unionville, Ontario. The school represents many years of effort on the part of John Madsen and his wife, Danes by birth, to establish a permanent Canadian folk school in the Danish tradition. The school is housed in converted farm buildings and has been in operation since 1948. Two innovations of the Madsen school are a community folk-school group of some 150, which meets regularly on Wednesday evenings, and an annual folk festival at Cherry Hill Farm.

Folk schools in Nova Scotia.—In 1946 the Adult Education Division of the Nova Scotia Department of Education developed a series of two-day courses for training community leaders. The experiment created an interest in more and longer courses of this kind, and out of this interest came the first folk schools in 1948. These schools, of two weeks' duration, are sponsored by agricultural associations, home and school associations, women's organizations, co-operative societies, and other rural organizations. The schools are administered by the Adult Education Division of the Department of Education, with assistance from the Department of Health and the Department of Agriculture. The pattern of operation of the folk schools in Nova Scotia is similar to that of Manitoba and Ontario. The general theme of the schools is the broadening of interest in farming and in rural community life.

Experiments in Alberta.—Two educational ventures in Alberta are adapting some of the principles and practices of the Scandinavian folk schools to Canadian conditions. One is the "school of community life" and the other is the Banff School of Fine Arts.

The first school of community life was organized in 1937 by the Department of Extension of the University of Alberta in co-operation with agricultural organizations and the provincial departments of agriculture and education. This three-week school attempted to stimulate a desire for knowledge and to emphasize the need for exercising critical judgment in everyday living. For some years, schools of this kind were held at the Olds School of

Agriculture. In 1941 similar schools were held at rural centers. In 1943 a series of week-long "community life conferences," following the same general pattern, was developed. These conferences were designed to bring people together in a spirit of neighborliness; to help them prepare for new and changing conditions; to assist in mobilizing the resources, leadership, and talent of the district; and to enrich the values of rural living. The conferences were open to young people and to family groups. Cabins and other accommodations were usually available for families, while the young people brought their own tents and trailers. Meals were eaten in a common dining hall. Subjects under consideration included world affairs, agriculture, home economics, co-operative education, community goals and problems, leadership techniques, public speaking, irrigation, gardening, and conservation.

A second Alberta venture which follows some of the practices and principles of the Scandinavian folk schools is the Banff School of Fine Arts. Begun in 1933 as an experimental school for the encouragement of the fine arts, it has developed a year-round program which contributes much to the cultural, educational, and social life of the province. From the end of June until the middle of September the school presents an in-residence program in painting, music, drama, ballet, handicrafts, photography, creative writing, and languages. During the remainder of the year the school is used by cultural, social, commercial, and recreational groups for workshops, special courses, sports, and conferences.

The Banff School did not possess buildings of its own until 1946. Since that time it has built or purchased accommodation for about three hundred students and is planning or is constructing facilities which will eventually accommodate a thousand students. The school is self-supporting operationally. To meet the costs of expansion and development, it solicits funds from individuals and organizations through the Banff Foundation.

A CANADIAN FOLK SCHOOL

An examination of the folk schools being developed in eastern, western, and central Canada reveals a variety of patterns that obscure the common elements that exist, and must exist, if truly *Canadian* folk schools are to result. These common elements may be interpreted as indicators of the direction in which future development is likely to occur. At the present time, the following common elements may be recognized:

1. The folk schools have generally accepted the broad goal of a better life in a better community, in a better nation, in a better world.
2. They are predominantly rural in origin.
3. They attempt to combine economic, social, cultural, and practical studies.
4. They tend to reflect the founding and sponsoring bodies in their emphasis on co-operation as a favored social and economic philosophy.
5. They are closely identified with the economic, social, and ethical life of the community.

6. They draw upon the local community for sponsorship, leadership, and resources.

7. They channel back to the community knowledge and leadership that improve the social and technological aspects of community living.

8. They are not formally integrated with the public school systems but have close working relationships with them.

9. They are democratic in their administrative and instructional policies.

10. They operate on the principle of study for action.

The common elements of folk-school development seem to lead directly into the common problems of development. At present, the following problems appear to be of immediate concern:

Adequate operational financing
Lengthening the folk-school sessions
Providing some follow-up and reinforcement of the learning experiences
Planning curriculum content to avoid bias and to create a balance between the social, cultural, intellectual, ethical, and practical aspects of the program
Improving the qualifications of the teaching staff
Providing adequate resource materials and physical facilities

As stated at the outset, the folk schools in Canada represent only a beginning in a development patterned on the Scandinavian model. At the lowest level, the Canadian folk schools are adapting to Canadian conditions some of the principles and practices of the Scandinavian schools by developing little more than a series of short courses given under rather favorable, and certainly novel, learning conditions. At the highest level, they are developing the beginnings of a philosophy and a set of operational principles and methods that may eventually lead to a truly Canadian folk school.

SOCIODRAMA IN A HIGH-SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT CLASS

RALPH GARRY
Boston University

TEACHER AWARENESS of sociometric and sociodramatic techniques is becoming increasingly widespread. Many instructors would like to use these techniques in their classrooms but hesitate to do so because of lack of information on how to proceed. This description of the introduction of sociodrama into a high-school class may therefore be of interest.

The setting was a northern California high school. One phase of the course of study for Senior students dealt with problems of adjustment. The instructor of the class being described was one of several full-time counselors who directed the well-developed guidance and counseling program of the school. As a part of the program, Freshman and Senior classes were offered a course dealing with problems of school, social, vocational, and personal adjustment.

Preceding the sessions reported here, various techniques for measuring and describing personality and procedures relevant to adjustment of personality problems had been discussed. The writer was invited to describe projective techniques, particularly sociodrama and psychodrama.

The following report describes the five hourly sessions which were held each day for a week. The class was composed of sixteen Senior students, eight boys and eight girls.

INTRODUCING THE TECHNIQUE TO THE CLASS

The following notes of the class teacher describe the first session:

Preceding the appearance of G [the author of this article, who conducted the sessions], I announced that a former colleague had agreed to come to the group in the capacity of a consultant who was interested in projective techniques (explained) with normal people; that, if the group expressed a desire to do so, a project in the method of group experience would be initiated. Previous work in the group had included exposition, demonstration, and evaluation of various quack and pseudo-scientific techniques (graphology, astrology, dreambook interpretations, acidity, numerology, physiognomy, palmistry, card-reading, crystal-gazing, popularly prepared nonstandardized magazine tests, etc.).

On his appearance, G was introduced to the group: "This is Mr. G, who will tell you about the work he has been doing."

G said: "Now you've met me, I'd like to meet each of you. Perhaps the best way would be for each one to tell his name and something about himself, so I'll know you

better. [*Indicating the boy sitting to my left*], Let's start with you."

The boy gave his name with no comment. The next boy immediately offered his name and added, "I don't do anything." The remaining students offered their names willingly but made no gratuitous comments. In several instances there was byplay between G and the student concerning pronunciation of a name; all bantered their responses in a way that indicated exceptionally good rapport.

A girl entered late. G stood up, said, "I haven't met you. My name is G. What is yours?"

"Jane Ingalls.[1] Hello, G."

The introductions completed, G briefly described the use of standardized, paper-and-pencil personality inventories and outlined certain projective techniques: Rorschach, TAT, and sociodrama, expanding on the last by describing the uses and the distinctions of psychodrama and sociodrama. When asked whether they would like to have the methods of sociodrama explained, the group answered heartily, "Yes." Without further comment, three- by five-inch cards were passed to the students.

Each student was asked to write his name at the top of each of the three cards that had been given to him. There was unanimous enthusiasm on the part of the students toward the whole procedure. The following instructions were given:

"In seating arrangement such as you have in this room, it is possible to have three or four students of your choice sit around you—one on each side and a couple across the table. Please write down the names of those you would like to have sit near you. Put a number in front of each name, indicating whether that person is your first, second, or third choice. You will be seated, at least during this week, on the basis of your choices."

When this was done, G said, "Now I want you to do the same thing again, except this time, write the names of those you don't want sitting near you—those you reject, so to speak."

While the first cards were being collected, G told how each person plays a variety of roles in life, referring to the instructor's serving as monitor at this moment and a teacher at school, but a husband, father, and possibly a son at home. It was then explained that, after writing one's name at the top of the second card, each student should indicate the various official roles he currently played, and how well he believed he played the role by putting in front of the name of the role a plus sign, a minus sign, or a question mark. The next step was to indicate the roles one had played in the past but played no longer (such as student-body president, son if one no longer had parents, or jobs one had had), with a similar symbol evaluation of how successfully the role had been assumed. The third area explored on this card was the listing of roles one would like to play. The fourth area was the listing of roles that one would definitely dislike playing. The cards were collected as the students finished.

Information requested on the third card consisted of descriptions of two situations which one felt adequate to handle successfully, followed by indication of two situations which one felt himself inadequate to handle successfully. The illustration used to initiate the responses for this card concerned asking for a date. The cards were collected as each student finished. A considerable range of time was involved, for some rapidly phrased their answers, others deliberated and were obviously searching for what they wished to include.

Seven minutes were left of the fifty-minute period. G suggested that the group run through one scene. Two girls were selected to go out of the room. A boy was chosen as a

[1] The names of the members of the class are fictitious. In addition, sufficient time has elapsed since the class sessions were held to safeguard identification.

character. G sketched in the problem: the girl has made two dates for the same night; one boy is calling for the girl; he is the unwanted date. The girl is to show how she would handle the situation.

One of the girls was recalled, instructed on the situation, and entered into the role-playing. The boy's responses met all the tentative attempts to break the date. Comments elicited from the group showed that they thought she was procrastinating, failing to come to the point.

The second girl's playing of the role started and ended in frustration. She was unable to say anything, except to direct a helpless appeal to G that she didn't know what to do. The class bell interrupted at this time. G remarked that possibly his instructions were not sufficiently clear and that she would have subsequent opportunity to enact a situation.

CHOICES AND REJECTIONS OF THE CLASS

A few interesting observations may be made regarding the choices and rejections of the group. First, the class divided itself uniformly with regard to sex. Boys desired to sit by boys, girls by girls. Only on the level of third choice did any of the group select a person of opposite sex as a seating companion. One would anticipate, from the research of Moreno[2] and Jennings,[3] greater choice across sex lines at this grade level, rather than the distinct cleavage observed. The division may be a function of the social environment in the particular school or classroom or perhaps of the novelty of the sociodrama sessions.

The second interesting note is the centering of choice and rejection. One boy, Howard, was chosen by nine students and rejected by none, while Chuck was rejected eight times and chosen four. This result would scarcely have been suspected unless measured by a sociometric technique. Howard, the chosen boy, was a newcomer, having transferred to the school at the beginning of the semester. He was attractive and a good athlete, but he was a quiet, modest, unassuming boy, tending to keep to himself. Chuck, the rejected student, was tall, well built, and handsome. He was an excellent athlete and student. He was popular with the student body, having been elected vice-president of the student body and football captain.

Granted that the criterion for choice was seating, and seating alone, and that any conclusions regarding choices according to other criteria are largely invalid, nevertheless the degree of rejection received by Chuck was quite unexpected. Information received later in the week indicated that his very capability, which gave him an air of self-assurance, was the basis for his being rejected. The other students, feeling less competent, were ill at ease in the face of his assurance. Howard, whose capabilities approached those of Chuck but whose modest and unassuming bearing made his fellow-students feel at ease, was the more frequently chosen.

[2] J. L. Moreno, *Who Shall Survive?* p. 27 f. Washington: Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Co., 1934.

[3] Helen Jennings, *Sociometry in Group Relations*, p. 71. Washington: American Council on Education, 1948.

LIFE-ROLES LISTED

The recapitulations from the cards showed the current roles of the class members to be the standard life-roles of daughter, son, sister, brother, and friend, and the predominately desired roles to be those of husband, wife, father, mother. There is nothing remarkable here, other than the need for development of ability to execute the typical life-roles adequately. This need is reaffirmed by the expressed adequacies and inadequacies of the students, which centered in these life-tasks.

ACTING OUT GENERAL PROBLEMS

The second, third, and fourth class sessions were devoted to the dramatizing of scenes which portrayed problems presented by the students' descriptions of their inadequacies. The students were informed that all information was confidential and that no one would be identified in the scenes played. On the whole, the scenes used were simple and dealt with common problems. Usually two or three principals would be sent out of the room, an auxiliary chosen, his role explained, and the scene set. Then, one by one, the principals were injected into the scene. All performances were evaluated for their adequacy. Each student performed in two or more scenes, but none appeared more than five times. The scenes played during the second, third, and fourth sessions are described below.

Refusing loans.—Chuck was to request a five-dollar loan to buy a Christmas present for his mother. Each of the three acting students was informed that he was to deny the request, although having the money. Only one girl succeeded in steadfast denial.

Collecting loans.—Howard owed five dollars, which he had available and which each of the three actors, in turn, was to collect. None was able to collect the five dollars, and none got specific promises of when and where the loan would be paid.

Saying "No."—A girl was designated to represent a member of a committee decorating a hall for the Senior dance. Needing emergency help, she was to ask the assistance of a series of students. Three of the five actors finally agreed to assist, while two made their refusals stand.

Making a date.—Four couples acted a scene in which the boy asked the girl for a date. Each scene was viewed by all other class members. In each successive scene the approach and request of the boy grew more definite and polished.

Double dates.—Several girls played the scene in which they had made two dates for the same evening and must turn down one. The consensus of the class was that a direct, honest approach for explaining the refusal was desired rather than an evasive making of false excuses.

Reversal of parental permission.—One student played the role of a mother who, for no reason other than whimsey, rescinds permission for her child to go to a show. Each of several students played the part of the son or the daughter. In each instance the son or the daughter tended to revert toward infantile begging for permission rather than finding any more mature method of meeting the situation.

Disciplining a student.—Several students were cast in the role of a high-school principal disciplining a student. The teacher played the role of the student, thus reversing the nominal roles. The teacher, who had an unusually good relationship with his students, played the role superbly. In most instances the students approached the prob-

lem with unusual maturity, seeking a satisfactory solution rather than resorting to perfunctory discipline.

Displaying emotion.—A boy, Howard, was chosen as target, with instructions that he was to react according to the dictates of each situation. Several students were thrust into the scene with instructions to portray fear, anger, dominance, or pity; to get into the feeling state rapidly, carry it as long as possible, and break off the scene when the feeling was ended. On the whole, the spontaneity with which the students exhibited the four emotional states was limited and vaguely defined.

Negro child playing with white children.—Two students were selected to play roles of young white children on a playground to whom an instructor introduced a Negro child. The white children had not seen a Negro child previously. The problem was to show how adequately the teacher met the question, "Why is his skin dark?" All the students playing the role of the teacher explained, defended, protested in introducing the Negro child, assuming antagonism on the part of the other children.

Negro mothers requesting birth certificates for their children.—A scene was acted in which the director played the role of a white doctor in the South answering the requests of Negro mothers for birth certificates for their children. The disdain with which the doctor treated the mothers and the manner in which racial discrimination entered into the issuance of the birth certificates established a scene of utter humiliation.

ACTING OUT PERSONAL PROBLEMS

The final session differed from the preceding sessions in that it became personal rather than general. In a series of scenes two students discussed a third member of the class. In all situations one student criticized, one defended. Chuck was the defender in every case. There were several reasons for selecting him: first, because he was the most rejected, his appearing as defender would be a new relationship; second, he had demonstrated the poise and presence of mind necessary to meet spontaneous situations adequately. Chuck was informed beforehand what his role would be, but he was not told who the targets of criticism would be or who the critics. In each instance the student selected to do the criticizing was friendly to the target person. Each person who was criticized participated in a later performance in which he played the critical role.

There was some hesitation on the part of the director in initiating this situation. He was concerned about the wisdom of bombarding what might be sensitive areas of the personality and about the possibility that the scene might set in motion forces which were beyond his capacity to control. On the other hand, two important factors warranted the session: (1) the excellent rapport that had been established between director and students and (2), more important, the healthy, well-integrated manner with which the students had approached earlier sessions.

As an overture, an explanation was presented of the importance of the phenomena of choice and rejection, including a discussion of how seldom we receive a direct explanation of the factors in our behavior which may be criticized by friends and enemies alike. It was pointed out that we can only

imagine why we are liked or disliked and that these fantasies resulting from an intrapersonal concept of ourselves may vary considerably from reality. Therefore, the exposing of reasons why a student was negatively and positively criticized appeared desirable. The class accepted the fact that the person playing the role of the critic was using as ammunition data supplied him by the director.

Following this introduction the two sociodramatic scenes involving Negroes were played to provide a warming-up medium and also to provide some perspective after "feeling" the rejection suffered by Negroes. These two scenes, particularly the humiliating scene regarding the Negro mothers, helped give the students a receptive attitude toward the scenes that followed.

The first scene using criticism seemed the most "touchy." For the first minute or two, considerable tension could be felt, particularly in the girl who was the target. This tension broke quickly following one actor's remark which the group and subject interpreted humorously. The laughter was an excellent anodyne. All scenes were excellently played, particularly by Chuck, the defender.

In one scene, which was unexpected by Chuck, the actress, Pat, began criticizing Chuck himself, asking him the reason for certain of his actions. He was momentarily startled, recovered quickly, but was surprised at the criticism of some of his behavior, for example, not saying "Hello" to everybody he passed in the halls. His response to the criticism was simple and straightforward and, judging from comments of class members overheard afterwards, gave the other students insight into his behavior. Chuck's reaction to this scene carried over to the following scene; here he persisted in calling the new actress "Pat."

In concluding the session, the director stated that, unintentionally, some of the students may have felt hurt by the criticisms and that he desired to meet privately with any such person at any convenient time. The director re-emphasized that he was personally responsible for all statements made during the scenes. In the discussion that followed, the director asked if any of the criticisms presented were unfounded. One girl suggested that the criticism of a particular boy's acting the class clown wasn't true, but the boy himself admitted that it was.

Pat was the only student with whom a post-class discussion was held. As she was leaving the class, the director overheard her comment, "Darn it, now I have to run for office." When questioned subsequently, she said that she had planned to run for a student-body office but had practically decided not to because another girl, whom Pat believed to be more popular, had decided to run for the same office. One of the actors in the psychodramatic scene had said that he thought Pat should not withdraw from the race merely because the other girl was running, and this comment caused Pat to decide that she could no

longer withdraw without losing prestige. Discussion of the situation with the director dissipated her anxieties regarding the situation, and the possibility of defeat held less threat for her.

EVALUATION OF THE PROJECT BY THE CLASS

Following the sessions the teacher asked his students for written comments regarding sociodra.na and psychodrama. Several of the more expressive comments follow.

The different situations are practiced by four or five different people because it enables us to compare flaws and personalities. If only the person suffering with the personality defect was presented, no comparison would be possible, and consequently, we could not judge the defect.

It also gave me a broader viewpoint in judgment of other people in the room.

He also mentioned the race situation in the South, and no one seemed to be very impressed. Yet, when he had finished enacting a few scenes illustrative of the problem, the class was highly incensed.

Showed me how there are different kinds of popularity in one classroom.

I began to see that a person can do or say whatever he wants; he doesn't have to cater to other people if he doesn't want to. It also opened my eyes to the fact that I do have a number of different roles to be played every day.

It taught me how to say "No."

I was rather worried I would be called on more often than I was because I don't like exhibition, such as it was. But I got used to the idea. However, it made me think how many people have trivial social problems which seem great to them but could be overcome with a little help.

The comments suggest that the use of sociodrama in the classroom furthered both self-understanding and social understanding. The extent of change or the degree to which it was transferred to actual life-situations goes unanswered. Nevertheless, it seems a safe conclusion that results associated with the action involved in sociodrama would not have been achieved through verbal discussion alone.

FACTORS RELATED TO MEASURES OF PROFESSIONAL RESOURCEFULNESS

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THE RESOURCEFULNESS of actively engaged teachers and administrators in the kinds of methods they would suggest for handling a commonly encountered professional problem was described in a previous article.[1] Data were gathered from a questionnaire given to 231 students during a summer session at the College of Education at the University of Illinois by asking them to list suggestions for meeting the following problem:

> Assume that you are teaching a class of thirty students next fall. During the first week of November you notice a widespread lack of interest both in classwork and in out-of-class assignments.
>
> List specific activities you would consider doing before Thanksgiving to improve this situation.

Two scores were assigned to each paper: (1) the number of categories in which the suggestions for activities fell (among ten classifications numbered in order of their assumed desirability) and (2) an index of resourcefulness (represented by a summation of the category numbers of all responses of an individual). When resourcefulness scores for the various groups were compared, there was a strong indication that resourcefulness is a function of a number of variables. It was concluded that the scores earned could not be considered entirely a function of teacher knowledge and information but were, to a considerable degree, a function of attitudes and habits of applying existing knowledge and skills to a practical situation.

The purpose of the present paper is to explore further some of the variables believed to influence the kinds and the amount of teacher resourcefulness.

SCORES ON EXPERIENCE AND RESOURCEFULNESS

Length of professional service would appear to be a rough indication of the extent to which teachers and school administrators have previously dealt with problems similar to that presented here. Specifically, we were interested in examining the relations

[1] Ray H. Simpson, Eugene L. Gaier, and Stewart Jones, "An Index of Resourcefulness in Attacking Professional Problems," *School Review*, LX (December, 1952), 535–40.

between resourcefulness in dealing with a psycho-educational problem and amount of training and length of professional experience. That the relation between length of experience alone and resourcefulness (measured by methods) is not close may be noted in Table 1.

After the third year of teaching experience and up to the sixteenth year, there was a consistent decline in measured resourcefulness among the subjects investigated. All teacher groups with experience attacked the problem more effectively than those without any previous teaching experience. The mean resourcefulness score for the 171 subjects with teaching experience was 43.2 compared with a mean of 36.1 for the twenty-five persons in the pre-teacher group. This mean difference of 7.1 is significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence. Other differences in Table 1, however, were not of sufficient magnitude to warrant rejection of the null hypothesis. We can only conclude from these data that some teaching experience increases resourcefulness and that there may be a tendency for resourcefulness to decline as teaching experience increases beyond a certain point and then for it to increase, perhaps as a result of more varied types of experiences.

A possible explanation of this finding might be that teachers do not systematically continue to learn and do not concern themselves with new professional methods and techniques after graduation from a teacher-training institution. Most training courses are taught with the assumption that all learning must be presented in course work and the teacher must assume the responsibility for organizing this learning. Upon graduation, consequently, new teachers are unprepared to continue learning on their own. Furthermore, much that is learned—or, rather, *memorized*—is perhaps eliminated by forgetting with an accompanying decline in resourcefulness.

TABLE 1

RELATION BETWEEN YEARS OF EXPERIENCE AND RESOURCEFULNESS SCORES FOR 196 TEACHERS

Years of Experience	Number of Teachers	Mean Number of Categories Suggested	Mean Resourcefulness Score
0	25	3.5	36.1
1	24	4.0	44.4
2– 3	56	3.9	45.1
4– 6	26	3.8	41.8
7–10	24	3.5	40.6
11–15	21	3.3	39.9
16–21	12	3.6	46.5
22 or more	8	3.3	42.5

SCHOOL SIZE AND RESOURCEFULNESS

Another factor believed to be related to problem resourcefulness was the size of school in which our subjects were employed, since it is assumed a priori that greater specialization both in level and in subject matter taught might serve to depress resourcefulness. Conversely, the breadth of teaching and staff duties demanded in smaller schools might increase resourcefulness. Mean resourcefulness score for 101 teachers working in

schools with less than five hundred students was 43.9, while the mean score for 46 teachers in schools of over five hundred students was 37.7, with standard deviations of 18.9 and 15.9, respectively. A mean difference of 6.2 gave a t value of 2.1, significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence. Thus, according to our assumption, teachers in small schools (here defined as schools with 500 or fewer students) may develop greater resourcefulness in dealing with problems such as that employed here.

TABLE 2

RELATION BETWEEN ADMINISTRATORS' SCORES IN RESOURCEFULNESS AND LENGTH OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE AND LENGTH OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Years of Experience	Number of Administrators	Mean Number of Categories Suggested	Mean Resourcefulness Score
Administrative experience (32 administrators):			
1	12	4.5	53.8
2–3	10	4.0	44.0
4 or more	10	3.7	34.8
Teaching experience (33 administrators):			
1–6	14	4.5	49.2
7–12	9	3.1	52.7
12 or more	10	4.3	39.2

RESOURCEFULNESS OF ADMINISTRATORS

Since the mean resourcefulness scores obtained by administrators were higher than the mean scores of any of the other groups, we were particularly interested in further breakdown of these differences. The breakdown between scores earned and length of administrative and teaching experience, or both, is presented in Table 2.

While the number of cases here is small, the obtained differences were great enough to be statistically significant. In the upper half of Table 2 the mean difference in total-attack scores between the group of administrators with one year and those with four years or more of administrative experience is 19.0. A difference of 2.7 between these groups is significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence. It appears that the longer administrators are out of actual classroom teaching situations, the less likely are they to be in face-to-face contact with classroom problems. In all fairness, however, it should be emphasized that those with less administrative experience may be products of a changed teacher-education program and improved selective procedures, or of both.

The lower half of Table 2 presents the relation between length of teaching experience of administrators and resourcefulness scores. Again, support is found for the conclusion that teaching experience per se does not appear as important in determining administrators' resourcefulness as does length of time which administrators have been removed from teaching activities or, conversely, the length of time that they have had to acquire an administrative point of view.

UNDERGRADUATE TRAINING AND RESOURCEFULNESS

The causes of the relation between resourcefulness and type of institution where undergraduate teacher training was obtained are not clear. The obtained means earned by products of different types of schools are shown in Table 3.

Broken down by school emphases, such as private schools or teachers' colleges, comparisons of the groups did not result in statistically significant differences.[2] Differences were more marked when specific teachers' colleges were considered, especially in the difference between graduates of Teachers' College A and Teachers' College C. It is our belief that these differences may be a function of the location of the school and, hence, of the types of students drawn, rather than of essential differences in professional training. Even so, this last factor should not be ignored, since it may be significant that the highest group score was earned by a group trained in a teachers' college. In an over-all view of the data in Table 3, it should be noted that the amount of variance is insufficient to warrant rejection of the null hypothesis. In view of this, one is forced to conclude that the type of institution providing undergraduate training does not appear to be a major determiner of resourcefulness for the population used in this study.

Perhaps the most striking differentiation of group scores was obtained by a breakdown into class groups of those who, at the time, were subject to different instructional emphases. Especially significant was the marked contrast between those taught by the lecture method emphasizing factual subject matter as opposed to those whose classes emphasized the *processes* of attacking problems. Students from the classes with the problem-process orientation made the higher scores. This may be partly explained by the fact that this method had as its goal the development of just such skills as

TABLE 3

RELATION BETWEEN MEAN RESOURCEFULNESS SCORE AND TYPE OF SCHOOL AT WHICH UNDERGRADUATE TEACHER TRAINING WAS TAKEN

Type of School	Number in Group	Mean Number of Categories Suggested	Mean Resourcefulness Score
1. Private universities or colleges	53	3.9	44.7
2. Teachers' colleges:			
College A....	26	4.0	46.7
College B....	28	3.8	42.0
College C....	15	3.7	37.1
All others....	25	3.5	44.0
All teachers' colleges...	94	3.8	43.0
3. State universities or colleges except teachers' colleges.....	83	3.8	40.1

[2] This is not to imply that undergraduate training is not influential. Rather this may merely indicate that insufficient cases were used to permit further breakdown by specific schools in Categories 1 and 3.

those tested in this measure of resourcefulness. While lack of control of the instructor variable, the duration of the class, and the subject matter studied is recognized, as well as the fact that these differences in scores cannot be attributed solely to method of instruction in one course, the obtained values were of such magnitude as to suggest that method of instruction *may* be the most single important variable in determining set and orientation and skill in attacking professional problems. These results may also serve as an argument for those who encourage workshops and short training sessions to modify teacher attitudes and who encourage use of new techniques and developments.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This investigation was concerned with the relations of several variables believed important in determining the resourcefulness of educators in proposing solutions for a psycho-educational problem. The results, based on a population of 231 students, may be summarized as follows:

1. Highest resourcefulness scores were made by those subjects with 1–3 years of experience and those with 16–21 years of experience. Lowest scores were obtained by those without any teaching experience. A progressive decrease in teaching resourcefulness was noted during the twelve-year period of 4–15 years of experience.

2. The size of the school in which the teacher works is related to resourcefulness. Teachers from smaller schools earned higher resourcefulness scores than did teachers from larger schools.

3. The relation of resourcefulness to the type of college in which the individual had received his teacher-training work was not clear. However, the fact that the highest mean score was obtained by a group trained in a teachers' college may be of significance.

SPELLING CAN BE TAUGHT TO HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS

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SPELLING ACHIEVEMENT, or lack of it, has been causing acute pangs to teachers, administrators, members of the lay public, and—lest we forget him—the beleagured student. Whether boys and girls today can spell as well as their predecessors of twenty or forty years ago has been one of the more common points of controversy. Without renewing any of that controversy here, it can be said that students should have an opportunity to continue to improve their spelling through the high-school years.

Professor Fred Ayer has presented evidence that methods of teaching spelling in the high school are generally ineffective and has called for a more definite program for teaching spelling to high-school students.[1] The language-arts staff at the University of Minnesota High School, where the writer taught until recently, recognized the general truth of Ayer's conclusions and carried out an experiment which it hoped would lay a basis for an effective spelling program.

[1] Fred C. Ayer, "An Evaluation of High School Spelling," *School Review*, LIX (April, 1951), 233–37.

PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY

The experiment was carried out in three twelfth-grade classes in English taught by the writer. From September 17 until December 10, 1951, each of the three classes was taught spelling by a different method. Approximately thirty-five minutes of class time each week were given to the work, and the students worked independently outside of class. (How much work was done outside of class depended, of course, upon the vagaries of individual students!) The three classes were equivalent in September on Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test scores and on spelling achievement as measured by a special test of seventy-five words which was constructed for use in the study. The basis for this test was an analysis of the most frequently listed words in all the available twelfth-grade textbooks in language and spelling and of those words with which twelfth-graders at the school had commonly had trouble. The test included only words which twelfth-graders were likely to use in their speaking and writing.

Class I studied the three hundred words listed for mastery in their language textbook. The teacher explained the five-step plan for learning to spell words outlined by Fitzgerald[2] and urged the students to use this method in learning the words on the list and any other words that were giving them difficulty in their classes. Fitzgerald's steps are as follows:

(1) Pronounce and use orally in a sentence. (2) See the word, syllable by syllable; spell the word orally. (3) Look at the word, then spell it with your eyes closed. Repeat Steps 1 and 2 if you are wrong. (4) Write the word; check it. (5) Write the word; cover it and write it correctly at least twice more.

TABLE 1

DATA ON SPELLING ABILITY OF CLASSES TAUGHT BY THREE DIFFERENT METHODS: (I) FIVE-STEP STUDY METHOD, (II) STUDY OF RULES, AND (III) INCIDENTAL METHOD

	Class I (19 Students)	Class II (27 Students)	Class III (18 Students)
Mean score on 75-word spelling test:			
September	47.76	46.69	49.24
December	56.78	53.88	54.19
Mean number of misspelled words on short impromptu theme:			
September	2.90	4.41	3.06
December	1.58	3.70	2.58
Mean number of misspelled words per student on term papers	7.44	9.07	7.06
Mean number of misspelled words of class per 1,000 words written on term papers	4.42	5.74	4.88

[2] James A. Fitzgerald, *The Teaching of Spelling*. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1951.

Thirty words were assigned for study each week. During the spelling period in class, a test-study procedure on the thirty words for the week was followed.

Class II studied seven spelling rules, one each week, with occasional weekly periods for review. Quizzes on words covered by the various rules were given; the rules were discussed; and examples of words following each rule were placed on the blackboard.

Class III studied spelling "incidentally" by keeping individual lists of words that they misspelled in their written work. During the class time on spelling, the students studied their own lists without any particular plan suggested by the teacher. Occasional test-study sessions were held on words causing difficulty for a number of the class members.

NUMBER OF SPELLING ERRORS

Spelling-test scores.—The students were given the spelling test the first time on September 17—the second day of the fall term—and again on December 10. The test results, which are summarized in Table 1, showed no definite statistical superiority for any of the three methods. The mean score in December of Class I, the group which studied the word list using the five-step word attack method, was significantly greater at the 5 per cent level than their September mean score. The gain of the other groups failed to reach this level of significance although they did gain definitely over their September perform-

ances. It should be pointed out that, because of the small numbers in each class, large gains are necessary in order to be statistically significant. It is obvious that all three classes made real improvement.

Spelling on impromptu themes.—Another way of evaluating the three teaching methods was provided by two-hundred-word impromptu themes which the students wrote in class on the third day of the term and again on December 7. In the writing of both papers, the students were not allowed to look up any words, and they were given no idea that spelling was any more important than it would be for any other writing assignment. The average number of words misspelled per student in each class was computed for each set of themes. This is, of course, a crude method of measurement, but the procedure seems valid since the three classes were equivalent both in average score and in variability on the spelling test given in September.

The data in Table 2 show that, as in the spelling test, all three classes showed some slight gain, though no gain was statistically significant. However, the fact that Class I gained more sharply than the others adds some support to the idea that the definite five-point plan for word attack might have been of benefit. One other observation seems interesting: on the themes the spelling ability of all the classes showed to greater advantage than on the test. This same result was shown in Swearingen's recent study of elementary-school children's spelling.[3] Naturally, in their writing, students

TABLE 2

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF TYPES OF SPELLING ERRORS MADE BY 64 TWELFTH-GRADE STUDENTS ON TERM PAPERS AVERAGING 1,650 WORDS IN LENGTH

Type of Error	Per Cent of Errors			
	Class I	Class II	Class III	All Classes
Attempt to spell phonetically	35	28	29	30
Garbling; miscellaneous	16	19	21	18
Apostrophes	15	11	16	13
Omitting letters (*therfore, somwhat*, etc.)	8	12	8	10
Words covered by rules in textbook	8	9	11	9
Double letters (other than involved in rules)	7	10	4	8
Homonyms (*to, too; their, there;* etc.)	6	6	6	6
Confusion of similar words (*then, than; were, where;* etc.)	4	2	2	3
Hyphens	1	2	2	2
Capital letters	0	1	1	1
Total	100	100	100	100

[3] Mildred E. Swearingen, "When Children Make Mistakes in Spelling," *Elementary English*, XXIX (May, 1952), 258–65.

tend to avoid using hard or doubtful words. Yet perhaps more stress should be placed on evaluating spelling skill in functional situations.

Spelling on term papers.—As part of their regular work, all the students wrote term papers outside of class. These papers, which averaged 1,650 words in length and were turned in early in December, offered another opportunity for comparing, at least roughly, the spelling achievement of the three classes. Since the length of these papers varied widely from student to student, the average number of words misspelled by each class per 1,000 words written was computed, as well as the average number of words misspelled per student. Again, the data in Table 1 show no evidence of superiority for any class, and the relative class standings are, in general, the same as on the test and the short themes.

TYPES OF SPELLING ERRORS

The long papers gave an opportunity, too, to study the kinds of errors in spelling made by the three classes. Table 2 gives the breakdown of all errors made. No conclusions concerning the efficiency of the three methods can be drawn from this study of types of errors; the proportions of each kind of error were remarkably similar in all classes. But there are, perhaps, some clues to useful approaches in building an effective spelling program, and this was the main outcome hoped for in the entire study. It is interesting again to note that the main types of errors made by the twelfth-graders corresponded closely to the kinds of errors revealed by elementary-school pupils in Swearingen's study.

CONCLUSIONS

1. There was no conclusive evidence from the study that any of the three methods of teaching spelling was superior to the others.

2. There was some evidence that all three methods brought some improvement in spelling over the three-month period of the study.

3. Spelling achievement of the twelfth-graders in the study appeared much better when judged by per cent of running words misspelled in themes than when judged by performance on a dictated spelling test.

4. Analysis of the kinds of errors made by the students in their writing provided a basis for the following seven-point program for teaching spelling to senior high school students:

a) Systematic instruction in spelling should be given in the high-school English class and in other classes where there is a need for special or technical vocabulary. Students should be made aware constantly of the need for care in spelling. Simple carelessness is undoubtedly one cause of poor spelling. For example, in this study the teachers were certain that apostrophes or letters were often omitted merely through carelessness.

b) Students should be given some concrete plan for attacking words for

spelling mastery. One such plan is Fitzgerald's technique referred to in the study.

c) Since attempts to spell phonetically accounted for the greatest per cent of errors, students should be given drill with certain word families in which different spelling patterns are used for the same sounds. Examples of such "families" might be (*1*) importance, entrance, existence; (*2*) sponsor, doctor, grammar, teacher; (*3*) summary, mockery, memory. Developing visual familiarity with various patterns for the same sounds is the important thing here.

d) Work with a limited list of spelling "demons" constructed for a specific group should be helpful. For the students in this study, such words as *to, too, two, there, their, its, it's, until, occurred,* would be included in such a list.

e) The per cents of errors indicate that some drill on use of apostrophes might be profitable. Generalizations concerning the use of the apostrophe are few and relatively clear cut.

f) The teaching of one rule (the well-known "*i* before *e* except after *c* or when there is the sound of *ā*) should be of some help. Generally, this study, like many others, showed teaching of spelling rules to be of little value. Yet because of a number of errors on this particular point in the papers and the fairly clear-cut nature of the rule, the teachers felt there might be some advantage in emphasizing it.

g) Of great importance to both reading and writing, of course, will be wide experience with written language. Among the reasons for the relatively large proportion of errors due to garbling of words is that writing vocabulary lags far behind speaking and listening vocabularies. This lag, although it will always exist, can best be reduced through much experience with written words.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

III. The Subject Fields—*Continued*

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This third and final list of selected references on secondary-school instruction to appear in the current volume of the *School Review* contains items dealing with the subject fields not represented in the February issue, namely, industrial and vocational arts, home economics, business education, music, art, and health and physical education. The present list, like the first and second, follows a definition of "instruction" which includes its three main aspects of (1) curriculum, (2) methods of teaching and study and supervision, and (3) measurement.

INDUSTRIAL AND VOCATIONAL ARTS

Homer J. Smith
University of Minnesota

337. Bawden, William T. *Leaders in Industrial Education*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1951. Pp. 206.

A series of studies of the lives and contributions of nine men—Bonser, Griffith, Harvey, Richards, Roberts, Runkle, Stout, Struck, and Woodward—who contributed greatly to the development of industrial education. The volume finds place as a textbook in industrial teacher-training departments and as a reader for those seeking background for present and future professional endeavors.

338. Bedell, Earl L. "Training High School Drawing Teachers," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XLI (September, 1952), 216–18.

A discussion of varied concepts concerning drawing as taught to high-school youth, such as essential need, reading versus making, varied industrial types, technique versus understanding, and pre-engineering drawing. Emphasis is given to the student's interest and purpose and to the instructor's background and instructional aims.

339. "Digest of Annual Reports of State Boards for Vocational Education to the Office of Education, Division of Vocational Education, Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1951." Washington: Division of Vocational Education, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, 1952. Pp. vi+98 (processed).

Through descriptive and statistical means, this annual report covers federally aided vocational education in all the states and territories. Full details of offerings, enrolments, monies, etc., are provided for five subject areas. Reviews current laws providing aid and explains organization, personnel, and functions of national advisory groups.

340. Emerson, Lynn A. *How To Prepare Training Manuals*. Albany, New York: Bureau of Curriculum Development and Industrial Teacher Training, State Education Department, 1952. Pp. x+358.

The most recent and the best of the publications for aiding teachers to give job instruction through the use of written materials. It will prove especially useful to persons engaged in occupational analy-

sis, selection of content, and perfection of training procedures. Both educational and typographical phases are covered so that the book may be used as textbook, reference, or guide.

341. GELMAN, MURRAY C. "Characteristics of a Sound Evening Trade School Program," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XLI (November, 1952), 298–99.

An itemized listing of concepts and practices most likely to insure a functioning program, organized under such captions as "Curriculum," "Guidance," "Pupil Personnel," "Teacher Personnel," "Relations with Industry," "Classroom and Shop Procedures."

342. HANKAMMER, O. A., and MORGAN, JACK W. "Four-Year College Mechanic Arts Curriculum," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XLI (September, 1952), 215–16.

Seeks to justify and explain a program of industrial instruction, at the college level, for those planning to be neither engineers nor industrial teachers. Describes trial curriculum under way at Kansas State Teachers College, where the degree of Bachelor of Science in Mechanic Arts is awarded.

343. HORNBAKE, RALPH LEE. *Professional Progress in Industrial Arts Education (A Founder's Day Address)*. Columbus, Ohio: Epsilon Pi Tau, Inc. (Box 3111, University Station), 1951. Pp. 16.

Reviews general cultural developments of our Colonial years and emphasizes that progress has become a tradition under the *refinement* theory and the *new-departure* theory. Two new-departure items are identified in industrial-arts education: (1) the "social interpretation" theory in the area of philosophy or objectives; (2) "multiple activities laboratory" and "pupil personnel planning" in the area of method or procedure. "Industrial-arts education, being geared directly to the tempo of our industrial life, cannot hope to keep pace through progress by *refinement*.

344. MAYS, ARTHUR B. *Essentials of Industrial Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. x+248.

Fulfils the author's "major purpose to present a clear, accurate, and readable account of the background, problems, purposes, and procedures of industrial education, which will aid the reader to understand more clearly the role of this phase of education in modern life." The coverage is broad, historical, descriptive of current practice, and predictive of future patterns.

345. *Precision, A Measure of Progress*. Detroit, Michigan: Department of Public Relations, General Motors Corporation, 1952. Pp. 64.

An illustrated brochure of real interest to those mechanically inclined, tracing the development of precision measurement upon which mass production, with its concept of interchangeability, is based.

346. *The School Administrator and Vocational Education*. Washington: American Vocational Association, Inc., 1950. Pp. 24.

Contains specific information of particular interest to school administrators as they develop and maintain vocational-education programs. Materials are conveniently presented in question-answer form and are concerned with principles, practices, and rulings for federally aided schools and classes.

347. SIRO, EINAR E. "Preparation and Upgrading of Industrial-Education Personnel," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XL (June, September, and October, 1951), 223–25, 256; 265–67; 305–9.

Presents facts concerning three-fourths of the possible total of 190 higher institutions that engage in industrial teacher training, involving more than 500 staff members and more than 18,000 trainees. Some of the types of items included are location of institution, physical facilities, offerings and requirements, degrees, placements, teacher supply, certification, and

relations with state departments of education.

348. "Vocational Buyers Guide 1952," *American Vocational Journal*, XXVII (September, 1952), 13–34.

A directory of reliable firms that provide goods and services for agricultural education, audio-visual education, business education, distributive education, home-economics education, and shop and laboratory. There is also a list of publishers that supply books in selected fields or levels.

349. WENZEL, ARTHUR C. "Student Planning—A Teacher Responsibility and a Student Activity," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XLI (October, 1952), 251–53.

Urges that a student's learning to think should be developed through practice in planning rather than through dependence upon directions of textbooks or instructors. A student planning sheet is shown, filled out by a pupil with reference to a selected project.

350. WILBER, GORDON O. "Industrial Arts and the Pedagogical Lag," *School Shop*, XII (September, 1952), 9–10, 32.

Reviews faculty psychology, transfer of training, the five formal steps in teaching, stimulus-response theory, analysis, individual instruction sheets, etc., and indicates how these have influenced instructional procedures in industrial arts. Then lists principles of teaching and learning that now seem acceptable, urging instructors to reduce the gap between theory and practice.

351. WILLIAMS, WALTER R., JR., and MEYER, HARVEY KESSLER (editors). *Inventory-Analysis of Industrial Arts Teacher Education: Facilities, Personnel, and Programs*. Yearbook I of the American Council on Industrial Arts Teacher Education. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight & McKnight Publishing Co., 1952. Pp. 186.

Early pages show progress of training of industrial-arts teachers in a variety of aspects, based on data of 1941, 1948, and 1951. Chief presentation is a detailed directory and description of higher institutions, showing for each institution names of departmental staff members, degrees offered, undergraduate and graduate courses available, space and equipment evaluations, number of major trainees, and allocation of the program within the institutional organization.

HOME ECONOMICS[1]

NAOMI KELLER
University of Chicago

352. AUSTIN, RUTH, and PARVIS, JEANNETTE O. *Furnishing Your Home*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951. Pp. 282.

An excellent book planned for high-school students, with up-to-date and well-chosen illustrations.

353. BAILARD, VIRGINIA, and STRANG, RUTH. *Ways To Improve Your Personality*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951. Pp. 250.

A book planned to help adolescents in learning to understand themselves and in acquiring knowledge about how to get along with others.

354. *California School Lunch Guide*. Prepared by SCHOOL LUNCH PROGRAM STAFF OF THE CALIFORNIA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXI, No. 8. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1952. Pp. x+196.

A reference helpful to managers of school cafeterias.

355. EVANS, MARY. *Better Clothes for Your Money*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1952. Pp. 224.

A good reference on the subject, particularly for older students.

[1] See also Item 653 (Christianson) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

356. FUTURE HOMEMAKERS OF AMERICA, INC. *Handbook for Teachers: A Guide for Helping Students Evaluate Their Own Growth*. Washington: Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, 1952.

One of a series of publications written to help teen-age girls in their growth toward maturity. Should prove useful to the teacher and student both in class and in club work.

357. GORSLINE, DOUGLAS. *What People Wore*. New York: Viking Press, 1952. Pp. 266.

Presents "a visual history of dress from ancient times to twentieth century America." Of interest to students of historic costume or those who might wish to know about the dress of a particular period.

358. HARTLEY, PAUL. *How To Beautify Your Home with Color*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. 80.

Designed to make the study of color easy to understand, the book presents simplified explanations in order to make them enjoyable and helpful to the average reader.

359. HEUER, LEONE (editor). *Your Home Furnishings Dollar*. Chicago: Household Finance Corporation, 1952. Pp. 36.

An excellent guide for students of household furnishings and home decoration. Contains a number of good illustrations, many shopping hints, and much consumer-buying information.

360. "Home Economics for Boys and Girls in Seventh, Eighth, and Ninth Grades: Some Descriptions of Promising Practices." Office of Education, Misc. 3422. Washington: Home Economics Education Branch, Division of Vocational Education, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, 1952. Pp. vi+48.

Contains descriptions of what is being done in numerous places in the United States. Although prepared for junior high school, it should also be of interest to teachers planning courses in Grade IX for students without a previous home-economics background.

361. MILLARD, REED. "Hobbies That Hold Your Family Together," *Coronet*, XXXI (January, 1952), 136–38.

Gives concrete suggestions on the subject for older students and adults interested in family-centered recreation.

362. MOORE, ALMA CHESTNUT. *How To Clean Everything*. New York: Simon & Schuster, 1952. Pp. 238.

One of the most inclusive books on the subject that the compiler has seen. Its explanation of terms, its interesting manner of presentation, and its up-to-date materials should make it a valuable reference book.

363. SANDERS, MARGARET R. "A Family Centered Foods Course," *Journal of Home Economics*, XLIV (December, 1952), 775–77.

Describes the work as it is now taught to ninth-grade girls in Haskell Indian Institute. Worth-while reading for high-school teachers of foods.

364. SHANK, DOROTHY E. "Pretend It's True," *What's New in Home Economics*, XVII (October, 1952), 58–59, 138.

Based on the author's idea that, since a high per cent of girls marry shortly after graduation, their high-school study of foods would be more meaningful if at least part of the work were based on a study of cooking for two.

365. VAN DUZER, ADELAIDE; BOBENMYER, ETHELWYN L.; HAWKINS, E. MAUDE; HEMMERSBAUGH, MARY E; and PAGE, ELSA P. *The Girl's Daily Life*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1951 (fourth edition). Pp. 646.

A recent revision of the book which has for a number of years been a helpful reference to high-school girls.

366. WASHINGTON, ELLA MAE. *Color in Dress (For Dark-skinned Peoples)*. Guthrie, Oklahoma: McVickers Books

& Stationery Co. (110 East Oklahoma Avenue), 1951. Pp. 112.

Written for students of costume design and to help students in selecting correct colors in clothing and accessories.

367. WAUGH, ALICE. *Interior Design*. Minneapolis: Burgess Publishing Co., 1952. Pp. 70.

Planned for a one-term beginning course. The book is based on the study of color but also includes materials on good design in furniture, textiles, and accessories.

BUSINESS EDUCATION

EDWIN A. SWANSON

San Jose State College, San Jose, California

368. *Administration and Supervision of Business Education*. Ninth Yearbook. New York: Published jointly by the Eastern Business Teachers Association and the National Business Teachers Association, 1952. Pp. 402. (For sale by University Book Store, New York University.)

A series of papers dealing with the most important problems and phases of administration and supervision of business education.

369. BAKER, G. DERWOOD. *The Business Educator's Responsibility for Economic Education*. Tenth Annual Delta Pi Epsilon Lecture. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Co., 1952. Pp. 26.

Reviews the need for economic understanding and discusses the place of economic education in the curriculum.

370. BECKER, HERBERT L. "Teaching Typewriting to the Slow Learner," *UBEA Business Education Forum*, VI (February, 1952), 26, 37–39.

Describes some recognized difficulties of slow learners, such as trouble in following verbal explanations, and offers practical suggestions for surmounting these difficulties.

371. BRENDEL, LEROY A. "Molding the Employables in General Clerical," *UBEAU Business Education Forum*, VI (February, 1952), 14–17.

A proposed instructional plan for developing powers of finding, getting, and holding a job in a manner that assumes the supplementing of, rather than the displacing of, necessary skill development.

372. *Business Education Meets the Needs of the Times*. Twentieth Yearbook of the Commercial Education Association of the City of New York and Vicinity. New York: Commercial Education Association of the City of New York and Vicinity, 1951. Pp. 228. (For sale by University Book Store, New York University.)

A series of papers and other related contributions organized in five parts. The third and primary part of the volume includes "A Consideration of the Curriculums Proposed by the Committee for the Survey of Business Education in the Public High Schools of the City of New York."

373. CRESCI, GERALD. "We Did Something about Attitudes," *Balance Sheet*, XXXIV (December, 1952), 157, 161.

Reports the tentative conclusions of a group of business teachers who decided to do something about developing desirable attitudes and character traits.

374. DAMON, G. E. "Let Them Laugh!" *Business Education World*, XXXIII (December, 1952), 182–83.

Describes and illustrates effective use of cartoon humor in the typewriting classroom.

375. ENTERLINE, H. G. "Summary of Needed Research in Business Education Administration and Supervision," *National Business Education Quarterly*, XX (May, 1952), 43–52.

Outlines possibilities for research, clarifies needs, classifies problem areas, and offers help in definition of problems.

376. EYSTER, ELVIN S. "What Business Educators Want To Know from Business-

men," *Journal of Business Education*, XXVIII (November, 1952), 51, 62.

A listing of kinds of facts and information that school people urgently need.

377. GAGE, ERDENE. "The One-Teacher Business Education Department," *Journal of Business Education*, XXVII (January, 1952), 199–202.

Administrator and teacher alike will find in this article suggestive ideas about the business program in a small high school.

378. GEMMELL, JAMES. "A Dozen Ways To Use Community Resources in Teaching Bookkeeping," *Business Education World*, XXXII (May, 1952), 432–33.

Describes some resources in the community that should be used for educational purposes, particularly in bookkeeping classrooms.

379. GIBSON, E. DANA. "Visualize Your Bookkeeping," *Journal of Business Education*, XXVII (February, 1952), 253–56.

Describes many ways in which visual materials may be prepared for use in the bookkeeping classroom. Includes a bibliography and a list of visual aids.

380. GIBSON, E. DANA, and STRAUB, LURA LYNN. "What a High School Business Graduate Should Know about Business Machines," *Business Education World*, XXXII (March, 1952), 325–26.

Outlines reasons for re-examining course offerings in business-machine operation, identifies machines needed in large-school and small-school courses, and attempts to justify the selections. This article is the first and basic one in a series of five.

381. GIFFIN, JAMES F. "Basic Business Belongs," *UBEA Business Education Forum*, VII (November, 1952), 31, 35–36.

Develops the position that, until preparation in our schools includes the area of basic business information as a part of the core of general education necessary for competent citizenship in our society, the preparation is incomplete and education has failed in its purposes and obligations to society.

382. GRESS, JOHN J. *Teaching Difficulties of Beginning Business Teachers*. Monograph 78. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Co., 1952. Pp. vi+106.

Reports a study of difficulties experienced by beginning business teachers as reported by the teachers themselves and by their administrators. Includes suggestions for overcoming these difficulties in undergraduate programs for training teachers in business.

383. GYGER, BERNARD R. "There's More to Business Education than Typewriting and Shorthand," *NEA Journal*, XLI (November, 1952), 481–82.

General-education aspects of business education are described as a means of promoting better education for the economic and business phases of everyday living.

384. HERRING, J. VIRGIL. "A Review of Research in the Methods and Procedures of Teaching Bookkeeping," *National Business Education Quarterly*, XX (March, 1952), 11–18.

Evaluates the research reported between 1920 and 1950 which was concerned with the teaching of bookkeeping and accounting.

385. KEITHLEY, ERWIN M. (editor). "Office Standards," Feature Section of the *UBEA Business Education Forum*, VI (April, 1952), 9–24.

There is an important and creative idea back of the planning in this well-edited collection of articles urging business teachers to recognize the importance of understanding business policy.

386. LANHAM, FRANK. "Hold a Business Show in Your School Gym," *Business Education World*, XXXII (June, 1952), 484–85.

Describes a two-day show of office machines held in the Saginaw (Michigan)

High School that could be the start of a new idea in public relations for schools.

387. MOSELEY, EUGENIA. "Typewriting in a Work-inspiring Environment," *UBEA Business Education Forum*, VII (October, 1952), 26, 30, 34–35.

Suggestions for equipment and room layout for the typewriting classroom.

388. MUSSELMAN, VERNON A. (editor). "A Selected Bibliography of Business Education—1951," *Journal of Business Education*, XXVIII (October, 1952), 20–21.

Lists important articles in the field of business education for the year 1951: a project sponsored by Delta Pi Epsilon.

389. NICHOLS, FREDERICK G. "Criticism, Comment and Challenge—Business Ethics," *Journal of Business Education*, XXVII (March, 1952), 281, 299.

"No subject in the business curriculum is without exceptional opportunities for teaching business ethics" is the carefully developed conclusion of the author.

390. NICHOLS, FREDERICK G. "Criticism, Comment and Challenge—Qualifications of a Supervisor of Business Education," *Journal of Business Education*, XXVIII (December, 1952), 96, 115–16.

Challenging editorial by the dean of American business educators in which he criticizes usual methods of selecting the city supervisor of business education.

391. PECK, GLADYS. "In-service Observations for Basic Business Teachers," *UBEA Business Education Forum*, VI (March, 1952), 18–21.

A state-level supervisor explains how, by observing one another in action, small-area discussion groups have proved helpful in stimulating teacher growth and in developing improved techniques.

392. PINEAULT, JOHN L., JR. *Criteria for Certification of Business Teachers*. Washington: National Association of Business Teacher-Training Institutions, Teacher Education Division of the United Business Education Association, 1952. Pp. ii+40.

A digest of a doctoral study on the certification of secondary-school business teachers, together with a statement of proposed policies, presented as a formal report of the Committee on Business Teachers Certification of the National Association of Business Teacher-Training Institutions.

393. RAHE, HARVES. "A Review of Research in Typewriting Prognosis," *National Business Education Quarterly*, XX (March, 1952), 44–53.

Classifies and outlines main findings of seventy-one studies dealing with the prognosis of the learner's success or failure in typewriting.

394. ROWE, JOHN L. "How and When To Use Drills in Typing," *Business Education World*, XXXII (April, May, and June, 1952), 383–85; 447–49; 488–89, 507.

A series of articles describing how, when, and why special-purpose drills have defensible and sound pedagogic values in the teaching of typewriting.

395. SONCRANT, HELEN. "Business Education Courses Offered in Texas High Schools," *Balance Sheet*, XXXIII (January, 1952), 208–11, 219.

Reports a study of business education in the secondary schools of Texas for the school year 1949–50.

396. STRONG, EARL P., and REED, MILDRED E. "Evaluating Your Typewriting Classroom," *Business Education World*, XXXII (May, 1952), 444–46.

Includes criteria for the evaluation of equipment and room layout in the typewriting classroom.

397. SWANSON, EDWIN A. "Cornerstones of Progress in Business Education," *NEA Journal*, XLI (December, 1952), 581–82.

Describes progress in research in business education and proposes an approach for re-

viewing and interpreting the research for purposes of improving instruction.

398. TAPPLY, PHILIP C. "Our School Store: A Learning Experience for All Business Students," *Business Education World*, XXXII (January, 1952), 232–33.

Description of the school-store project planned and directed by teachers and pupils in the business classes at Plymouth (New Hampshire) High School.

399. TONNE, HERBERT A. "What Is the Cause of Lower Office Production Standards?" *Journal of Business Education*, XXVII (January, 1952), 197–98.

Helpful article for business teachers and administrators who often are called upon to explain why it is so difficult to obtain competent and efficient office workers.

400. TURILLE, S. J. "Improvement of Instruction in Basic Business and Consumer Business Education," *UBEA Business Education Forum*, VI (March, 1952), 14–18.

Deals with problems facing business educators who would try to improve the content of basic business-education offerings.

401. VAN WAGENEN, RULON C. "Evaluation of Distributive Education," *UBEA Business Education Forum*, VI (April, 1952), 23–24.

Maintains that the basic concept of evaluation should be to measure each program against its community potentialities and each co-ordinator against his optimum capacity.

402. WELLMAN, ROWENA. "Delta Pi Epsilon," *Business Education World*, XXXIII (November, 1952), 123–26.

The story of Delta Pi Epsilon, graduate-level business-education fraternity.

403. WOODWARD, THEODORE. "Challenges for Business Education in the Core Program and in the Preparation of the Core Teacher," *National Business Education Quarterly*, XX (December, 1951), 11–16.

Describes how business teachers are challenged by the core-program idea to restudy the content of their courses and to cross subject-matter lines in their interests.

404. YOUNG, JAMES S. "The Business Club in the Small High School," *Balance Sheet*, XXXIII (May, 1952), 388–90, 399.

Suggested procedures and planning ideas based on firsthand experience with a business club in a small high school.

MUSIC[2]

V. HOWARD TALLEY
University of Chicago

405. ALLEN, WARREN D. "To Do, To Feel, To Think," *Music Educators Journal*, XXXVIII (April–May, 1952), 16–17, 31.

Expounds trenchantly that sensitivity and understanding are necessary concomitants to musical performance.

406. BARLOW, HOWARD. "Practical Music," *Music Educators Journal*, XXXVIII (January, 1952), 23–25; (February–March, 1952), 32, 34, 36.

Some sage advice on the practical side of musical creation and performance is offered by a noted practical musician, the conductor of the Firestone Hour on radio and television.

407. FREEMAN, WARREN S. "Music Education," *Review of Educational Research*, XXII (April, 1952), 136–40.

Reports on twenty research studies of various phases of music education made during the past five years.

408. HORKHEIMER, MARY FOLEY, and DIFFOR, JOHN W. (compilers and editors). *Educators Guide to Free Films*. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service, 1952 (twelfth edition). Pp. xi+508.

[2] See also Item 625 (Lawler) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

Lists twelve films (pp. 136–38) on subjects of interest to secondary-school classes in music appreciation.

409. MUSIC EDUCATORS NATIONAL CONFERENCE, PIANO INSTRUCTION COMMITTEE. *Handbook for Teaching Piano Classes.* Chicago: The Conference, 1952. Pp. 88.

Comprises eight articles dealing with the teaching of classes in piano in public schools and colleges.

410. NORTON, DONALD B. "Enriching Instrumental Music Study," *Music Educators Journal*, XXXVIII (April–May, 1952), 25–26.

Advocates the teaching of theory, harmony, music history, and conducting to every instrumental music student.

411. PITTS, LILLA BELLE. *Handbook on 16-mm Films for Music Education.* Chicago: Music Educators National Conference, 1952. Pp. 72.

Provides classified and annotated lists of films dealing with music, with information on where to get them and how to use them.

412. SMITH, CECIL. *Worlds of Music.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1952. Pp. 328.

A critical survey of big business in the world of serious, as opposed to popular music. Includes a chapter on the pros and cons of the world of music in education.

413. SQUIRE, RUSSEL N. *Introduction to Music Education.* New York: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. x+186.

A textbook designed for general courses in music education. It deals with methods, procedures, and materials proper to all levels of school music and emphasizes the philosophical and sociological aspects of the teaching of music in public schools and liberal arts colleges.

414. VAN BODEGRAVEN, PAUL. "Equality of Opportunity in Music Education," *Music Educators Journal*, XXXIX (September–October, 1952), 20–21.

Points out difficulties in applying this objective to present conditions in public school music, especially in the instrumental area.

ART

ROBERT D. ERICKSON
University of Chicago

415. BLAND, DAVID. *The Illustration of Books.* New York: Pantheon Books Inc., 1952. Pp. 160+46 plates.

Presents a historical survey of illustrations, from the illustrated manuscript to present-day books. Also considers children's books, processes of illustrating, and practical applications.

416. FLANAGAN, GEORGE A. *How To Understand Modern Art.* New York: Studio Publications, Inc., in association with Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1951. Pp. 334+100 illustrations.

Traces modern art through its earlier sources and influences and presents critical analyses of reasons for the movements. Table of Contents includes such titles as "The Art You Love," "Structure of a Picture," "What Cézanne Tried To Do."

417. GOUGH, PHILIP. "Designing for the Stage," *The Artist*, XLIII (July, 1952), 114–15. London: 51 Piccadilly.

Presents necessary background terminology and descriptive material essential for the beginning stage and costume designer.

418. HAAGEN-SMIT, A. J. "Smell and Taste," *Scientific American*, CLXXXVI (March, 1952), 28–32.

Explains how molecular structure in materials is related to smell and taste. Application of the material to art classes is possible through creative planning

419. HOFFMAN, ROBERT E. "Exploring Art," *Art Education*, V (March–April, 1952), 1–2.

Presents an approach to the visual arts through the natural interests of pupils in comic strips, coins, automobiles, and photography.

420. KUH, KATHERINE. *Art Has Many Faces*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1951. Pp. xiv+186 with 257 illustrations.

Presents a structural visual analysis of art forms of all types from gravestones through coal piles to plexiglass sculptures. Discusses different faces in nature; liberties taken by artists with line, color, form, light, texture, space; materials and tools as variants; characteristics of materials; how environment conditions the artist; and twentieth-century trends.

421. LASSAIGNE, JACQUES. *Spanish Painting*. Geneva, Switzerland: Albert Skira, 1952. Pp. 38+70 plates in color.

Presents a historical survey of Spanish painting from the late eleventh century through the works of El Greco. Superb illustrations of many paintings hitherto unseen in the United States are included.

422. LAWFORD, GIOVANNA. *The Human Frame*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., in association with Duell, Sloan & Pearce (New York), 1952. Pp. 96.

Presents thirty-eight skeletal plates in line drawings with structural descriptions. Includes drawings of the head, vertebrae, torso, arms, legs, and the entire torso. Suitable for the art teacher or for the advanced student in drawing, painting, or sculpture.

423. MARSHALL, LUCILE ROBERTSON. *Photography for Teen-Agers*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951. Pp. x+166.

Presents a clearly diagrammed description of basic photographic subjects, such as light and chemicals, choosing and using a camera, outdoor and indoor photography, portraits, color, movies, developing, and enlarging. A good textbook for high-school students.

424. MUMFORD, LEWIS. "How Art Education Strengthens Democracy," *This Is Art Education*, pp. 35–48. Yearbook of the National Art Education Association. Kutztown, Pennsylvania: National Art Education Association, 1952.

This sociology conscious writer presents a challenging viewpoint regarding the role of the art teacher in times of crisis. Suitable for teachers of any subject.

425. NEHER, EVELYN. "The Freedom of Laid-in Design," *Handweaver and Craftsman*, III (Summer, 1952), 18, 19, 58.

The laid-in design, often called "finger weaving," is explained and directions given for its application.

426. NISHIMURA, T. *Ikenobo School of Japanese Floral Art*. Kyoto, Japan: Ikenobo Floral Art Institute (Rokkaku-Dori Higashi No-Toin), 1951. Pp. vi+118+15.

Presents the philosophy and the poetical feeling which inspire Japanese flower arrangements and gives principles of arrangement and of organization. Profusely illustrated with examples of arrangements, this book covers even such items as use of color, tools and equipment, and relation of vessel to arrangement.

427. ROOD, JOHN. *Sculpture in Wood*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1950. Pp. 180+133 plates.

Presents examples of fine wood-carving and detailed directions for making carvings in the round and in relief.

428. SIPLEY, LOUIS WALTON. *A Half Century of Color*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1951. Pp. xvi+216+28 color plates.

Presents a comprehensive history of color photography from 1893 to the present day, with emphasis on processes of color reproduction, dye coupling, color rating, and control systems. Suitable for the advanced photographer, painter, and design student.

429. "Tools You Can Make," *Handweaver and Craftsman*, III (Summer, 1952), 28–29, 49, 51.

Describes and illustrates weaving equipment which can be constructed by high-school students, or by adults from plant labels, tongue depressors, grocery boxes, crates, dowel rods, and lattice strips.

430. TORBERT, DONALD, and NAGLE, NORMAN. "Architects Workshop," *Everyday Art Quarterly* (Spring, 1952), 1–16. Minneapolis: Walker Art Center.

The entire issue devoted to works by contemporary architects and planners in the Twin City areas includes such topics as the architect and the city, regional considerations, and solutions to problems in family living. Illustrations include examples of split-living areas, a cubehouse, and a two-story split-level house.

431. VARRO, MARGIT. *Designs to Music*. Chicago: Apprentice House (44 East Superior Street), 1952. Pp. 60+11 plates+ numerous musical notations.

Presents one of the first attempts in United States publishing to structure musical forms in terms of visual experiences. Interprets examples in which melodic line, rhythmic pattern, and structural variations found in musical works have been translated to visual form. Suitable for art students, teachers, laymen, and musicians.

432. WRIGHT, MARY, and WRIGHT, RUSSELL. *Guide to Easier Living*. New York: Simon & Schuster, 1951. Pp. 200.

Presents the designers' functional approach to living problems. Includes diagrams and charts of wall, floor, and tabletop coverings; dimensions; analysis of materials; and specifications for comfortable living. Suitable as a basic textbook for the homemaker, designer, artist, and teacher.

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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University of Texas

433. BERNARD, HAROLD W. *Mental Hygiene for Classroom Teachers*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. 472.

Describes a program to help teachers with mental-health problems.

434. BROWN, RICHARD L. "The Breath of Life," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIII (February, 1952), 32–33.

A short illustrated description of the new Holger-Neilson method of artificial respiration which the American Red Cross now uses in place of the prone-pressure method.

435. BUCHER, CHARLES A. *Foundations of Physical Education*. St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Co., 1952. Pp. 418.

Treats the nature and scope of physical education, its relations to health education and recreation, and changing concepts in the field.

436. BURNS, EUGENE. *Fresh and Salt Water Spinning*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1952. Pp. 96.

A helpful guide to the purchase and use of equipment for casting.

437. CORBALLY, JOHN E. "Every Teacher Should Be a Teacher of Safety," *Safety Education*, XXXI (March, 1952), 13–24.

An argument for greater attention to safety by all teachers.

438. COZENS, FREDERICK W., and STUMPF, FLORENCE. "American Sports from the Sidelines," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIII (November, 1952), 12–13, 56–57.

An interesting description of some often overlooked aspects of the place of sports in American life.

439. CURETON, THOMAS KIRK. *Physical Fitness of Champion Athletes*. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1951. Pp. 458.

A report of certain principles of human physiology and body mechanics tested against performance of Olympic and national champion athletes.

440. DANZIG, ALLISON, and BRANDWEIN, PETER (editors). *The Greatest Sport Stories*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1951. Pp. 680.

An excellent collection of accounts of outstanding sporting events of the last hun-

dred years as they were reported in the *New York Times*.

441. DUBLIN, LOUIS I. "Overweight—America's No. 1 Health Problem," *Todays Health*, XXX (September, 1952), 18–21.

A good discussion of the serious problem of overweight.

442. FITZGERALD, GERALD B. "Recreation as Your Career," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIII (November, 1952), 27, 47, 55.

Information about the opportunities of recreation as a profession is given for use in vocational counseling.

443. HATHAWAY, VICTORIA. "Stop That Headache," *Todays Health*, XXX (March, 1952), 46–47, 60–61.

What to do about a headache.

444. HOWARD, IRENE. "Polio Sense," *Todays Health*, XXX (July, 1952), 30–31, 58–59.

Helpful suggestions for eliminating fear when polio strikes.

445. IRWIN, LESLIE W. *Methods in Teaching in Health Education*. Minneapolis: Burgess Publishing Co., 1952. Pp. 132.

Suggestions on projects and methods useful in health instruction.

446. MEANS, LOUIS E. "The Fourth 'R'—Recreation," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIII (April, 1952), 7–9, 54–56.

A description of the extensive program of municipal recreation in Long Beach, California.

447. METHENY, ELEANOR. *Body Dynamics*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. 226.

An interesting nontechnical but scientific discussion of the body mechanics of posture and movement.

448. MEYER, L. R. *Spread Formation Football*. New York: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1952. Pp. 246.

A book dealing with the interesting formations used in the wide-open type of football.

449. MILLMAN, MAX, M.D. "Common Pitfalls in Reducing," *Todays Health*, XXX (May, 1952), 46–47, 56–57.

Some of the errors in reducing plans are described.

450. RODGERS, MARTIN A. "Leisure Time Sports for Senior High School," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIII (October, 1952), 14–15, 61.

A description of methods of classification and operation of recreational sports in high school.

451. SCHEELE, LEONARD A. "Guardian of the Nation's Health," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIII (April, 1952), 17–18, 27.

The surgeon general tells something of the work of the United States Public Health Service.

452. SCOTT, M. Gladys. "Trampolining Is for Girls Too," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIII (June 1952), 9–10, 55.

Some of the activities on the trampoline suitable for girls, with emphasis on safety, are described and illustrated.

453. SHAW, JOHN H. (editor). *Selected Team Sports for Men*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1952. Pp. 328.

A wide variety of sports, so described as to assist the layman and the teacher.

454. SMITH, TRUMAN S. *Beyond the Highway Sign*. Minneapolis: Burgess Publishing Co., 1952. Pp. 26.

A ready reference guide to highway signs.

455. SMITH, TRUMAN S. *Safe Driving Can Be Learned*. Minneapolis: Burgess Publishing Co., 1952. Pp. 84.

An illustrated book providing for analysis and study of the cause of traffic accidents.

456. SPEAR, MARION R. *Keeping Idle Hands Busy*. Minneapolis: Burgess Publishing Co., 1952. Pp. 100.

A "what-to-do" guide for occupational therapists, physical instructors, and camp counselors.

457. STEINHAUS, ARTHUR H. "What Is This Dance?" *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIII (February, 1952), 10–11, 34.

An explanation of modern dance in terms of some of its physiological aspects.

458. TAYLOR, WILEY W. "Those Who Can't See Need Physical Education Most," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, XXIII (May, 1952), 20–21.

Objectives and features of physical-education programs for the blind.

459. ZUHLKE, THOMAS, and INGRELLI, ANTHONY. "Civil Defense—A Core for Many Learnings," *Safety Education*, XXXI (April, 1952), 4–6.

An emphasis on the use of instruction in civil defense as a core around which to bring in instruction in safety, health education, and English.

FILMS

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The following list of selected instructional motion pictures is restricted to recent 16mm films not previously listed in this journal. All listings are sound films unless otherwise indicated.

INDUSTRIAL AND VOCATIONAL ARTS

460. *How To Investigate Vocations*. Black and white and color. Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films, 1952.

Intended to motivate young people to investigate vocations and determine the types of work for which they are best suited. Portrays the interpretation of vocational-guidance tests and the application of this information to different vocations. Explains how to raise questions related to a specific job and how to gain job experience.

461. *Personal Qualities for Job Success*. 11 minutes, black and white and color. Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films, 1952.

Illustrates personality requisites for job success by observing job interviews of several high-school graduates. Items stressed include initiative, good personal appearance, businesslike work habits, willingness to accept criticism, and ability to get along with people.

HOME ECONOMICS

462. *Menu Planning*. 10 minutes, black and white and color. Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films, 1952.

Illustrates how menu-planning can contribute to good family living through the serving of meals which the family can afford and enjoy, which can be prepared in the time available, and which will provide a well-balanced diet.

463. *Selection of Fruits and Vegetables*. 15 minutes, color. Washington: United States Department of Agriculture, 1951.

Suggests the three points consumers should consider in shopping for fruits and vegetables: need, quality, price.

464. *Tips from Your Freezer*. 20 minutes, color. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, 1951.

Shows how to get the best results from a deep freezer.

BUSINESS EDUCATION

465. *Gregg Shorthand Simplified*. Black and white, six films. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952.

Louis A. Leslie and Charles E. Zoubek, co-authors of the book *Gregg Shorthand Simplified*, demonstrate the teaching of

shorthand in actual classroom situations. The titles of the six films are: *First Lesson in Gregg Shorthand Simplified, Typical Lesson in Gregg Shorthand Simplified, Teaching Marginal Reminders, Developing Shorthand Speed, Doing Homework in in Gregg Shorthand Simplified,* and *Doing Homework in Gregg Shorthand Simplified: Functional Method.*

466. *Introduction to Accounting.* 20 minutes, black and white. New York: Business Education Films, 1951.

Covers the following topics: importance and uses of accounting, the personal qualities needed by a successful accountant, objectives of an elementary-accounting course, areas of advanced-accounting study, job opportunities, and the rewards that come to successful accountants.

Music

467. *Barber of Seville.* 1 hour, 55 minutes, black and white. New York: Cornell Film Co., 1952.

The complete opera by Rossini. Presents well-known operatic singers with the orchestra and chorus of the Rome Opera House.

468. *Fra Diavolo.* 23 minutes, black and white. Ridgefield, New Jersey: Official Films, Inc., 1952.

A condensed version of Auber's comic opera in three acts. Preserves the dramatic continuity and contains the major scenes and musical passages. Sung in Italian by the La Scala Opera Company.

469. *Here Comes the Band.* 17 minutes, black and white. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952.

The story of the University of Michigan band—selection of candidates, collection of music and instruments, rehearsals, and production of numbers executed on the field at football games.

470. *Immortal Bizet.* 20 minutes, black and white. New York: Almanac Films, Inc., 1952.

The life of Georges Bizet, filmed against the actual background in Paris, Arles, and Italy, with selections from his most important works.

471. *Introduction to Jazz.* 12 minutes, black and white and color. Los Angeles: University of California, Educational Film Sales Department, 1952.

Traces musically and historically the evolution of jazz music from 1895 to 1920—from its African origins through the "New Orleans period."

472. *La Traviata.* 14 minutes, black and white. New York: Musart Productions Co., 1951.

A condensation of Verdi's opera with arias in Italian and narration in English.

473. *Marching Band Fundamentals.* 21 minutes, black and white and color. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Audio-visual Center [and] New York: Educational Film Library Association, 1952.

Defines and shows the various marching steps and positions. Also shows marching with instruments and the handling of instruments at play and at carry positions.

474. *The Marriage of Figaro.* 1 hour, 46 minutes, black and white. New York: Brandon Films, Inc., 1951.

Mozart's opera is performed by the Berlin State Orchestra. German dialogue with English titles.

475. *Science in the Orchestra.* Black and white, three films. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952.

Exploring the Instruments. 12 minutes. How notes of different pitch are produced by changing the length of a vibrating string or a column of air; the variety of notes obtainable on brass instruments by altering the shape of the player's lips; the range of pitch of the various instruments in full symphony orchestra, demonstrated by diagrams and by the players.

Hearing the Orchestra. 13 minutes. The nature of sound and its transmission through the air; the structure and mechanism of the human ear. Visualizes the vibrations of sound and demonstrates what happens to sound in a vacuum.

Looking at Sounds. 10 minutes. An introduction to harmonics, with visual demonstrations on the audio-spectrometer of the harmonic components of notes made by different instruments. Finally an oboe is made to sound like a flute when its harmonics are changed in a filter network.

Art

476. *Craftsmanship in Clay: Decoration*. 10 minutes, color. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Audio-visual Center [and] New York: Educational Film Library Association, 1951.

Introduces decoration as the addition of visual interest to form and shows the three basic materials used for applying designs on a clay surface: clay, glaze, and clay slip. Useful for teaching the basic skills needed and for motivating interest in, and appreciation for, ceramic art.

477. *Form Evolution*. 13 minutes, black and white. New York: A. F. Films, Inc., 1952.

Intended to convey to students in art classes a number of fundamental concepts of nonrepresentational sculpture—concepts of form, volume, and form in motion.

478. *Gallery of French Sculptors*. 14 minutes, black and white. New York: A. F. Films, Inc., 1952.

Introduces the art of Rodin and shows how his teachings have influenced sculptors and sculpturing. Explains attitudes toward life and toward their work held by some of these sculptors.

479. *How To Make an Etching*. 20 minutes, black and white. New York: Almanac Films, Inc., 1951.

A detailed demonstration of this printmaker's art—the original drawing, its transfer to the metal plate, the mixing of the acid, heating, inking, and wiping. Also shown are the aquatint process and the final printing of the plate.

480. *Lithography*. 14 minutes, black and white. Chicago: International Film Bureau, 1952.

A demonstration performed by Marion Witt Wexler, lithographer and teacher of design at the School of the Art Institute of Chicago. Presents the successive steps in the production of a lithograph.

481. *Perspective Drawing*. 8 minutes, black and white. Los Angeles: University of California, Educational Film Sales Department, 1951.

Using a cube as a basic form, the film describes individually one-point, two-point, and three-point perspective techniques.

Health and Physical Education

482. *Alcoholism*. 22 minutes, black and white. Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, 1952.

Attempts to show how the roots of this illness are imbedded in personality difficulties often relating back to the early formative years of the victim's childhood, and how they can be traced through psychotherapy. Presents a case study of three types of alcoholics.

483. *Artificial Respiration*. 6 minutes, black and white. New York: Seminar Films, Inc., 1952.

Demonstrates the back-pressure arm-lift method of artificial respiration.

484. *Getting Ready Physically*. 11 minutes, black and white. Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films, 1951.

Explains the three essential steps in getting ready physically for entrance into the armed forces—the importance of having a thorough physical examination, the need for good health habits, the diagnostic use of the physical standard test set by the Armed Forces Committee of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation.

485. *H—The Story of a Teenage Drug Addict*. 20 minutes, black and white. New York: Young America Films, Inc., 1951.

The story of how a high-school boy first encounters narcotics through a fellow-student and how he is led into their use, becomes an addict, and finally begins the cure for his addiction.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

The American Secondary School. Edited by PAUL B. JACOBSON. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. Pp. viii+458. $4.75.

Various college textbooks in education have been offered in the past for the purpose of explaining to prospective secondary-school teachers the many problems they will face in their future work. Paul B. Jacobson, dean of the School of Education, University of Oregon, has induced a group of ten educators to write a new series of chapters for this same purpose. In the words of the Preface, this new volume on secondary education "is offered to college teachers who are seeking a text to introduce students to high-school teaching as a career" (p. vi). This review will need to give some estimate of how well this task has been accomplished.

Surely the authorship is distinguished; two deans and five other professors of education join with a superintendent, an assistant superintendent, and a specialist in school-community relations to form the panel of experts. Each writes with knowledge and skill in his own field, and the result is a compilation of eighteen chapters which survey the development and present-day features of our secondary schools.

The viewpoints of educators are so varied that no one, probably, will agree entirely with the results even of such able authorship. The crucial point is the degree to which the authors have identified the topics of major interest and concern to beginning secondary-school teachers and have provided a useful introduction to these topics.

This reviewer believes that a functional college course in secondary education can be organized by using this book as a basic textbook and centering the study on five questions of major concern:

1. *What of education as a career?* The first two chapters deal adequately with education as a profession, the qualities needed by teachers, opportunities for employment in teaching and in other careers in education, and the advantages and disadvantages of education as a career.

2. *What are the foundations of secondary education?* The book devotes an entire chapter to "The Developmental Tasks of Adolescence" and another to "Secondary Education in Democracy." It has become traditional, but nonetheless important, to say that education must be based both on the needs of the individual and on the nature of a democratic social order. The concept of "developmental tasks" is emphasized as a fruitful way of understanding the behavior of the adolescent and relating it to the needs of society. Similarly, the urgent need for teaching the basic tenets of our democratic system is emphasized. Another chapter describes the continuing efforts to make the high school free and effective for all youth. Finally, a chapter is devoted to several other problems, such as the recent development of the junior high school and the junior college.

3. *How did secondary education develop in this country, and how is it controlled and administered today?* An excellent short chapter traces the various stages of development since early Colonial days. Another chapter on the control of secondary education clarifies the roles of state, local, and federal government in education, describes the several types of school districts, and explains the functions of school boards and

administrative officers. Finally, a chapter considers factors affecting the program and the organization of public instruction.

4. *What is the instructional program of the secondary school?* A series of eight chapters, amounting to about half the total content of the book, goes to the heart of the school's program by discussing the curriculum and its development; extra-curriculum activities and their improvement; the pupil personnel program and its relation to teaching; and the various problems of evaluation, marking, and reporting.

5. *How shall the school better relate itself to the community?* The community-school movement is described as a conscious effort to relate the school's general-education program to the problems of living in its supporting community, nation, and world, through continual efforts to improve the quality of living.

Good answers to these five questions will provide the right content for an introductory course in secondary education, and the authors of this textbook have worked diligently to provide the answers. All the chapters are clearly written, although considerations of space have reduced many challenging topics to a page, or even to a paragraph. This reviewer, as one who is privileged to participate, day by day, in the dynamic process of educating youth, found himself wishing for more detail in some chapters, more graphic description, more illustrations in both word and picture, so that the college student of education might get the liveliest possible picture of the secondary school. Yet the book is readable and interesting, and each chapter contains questions and references that will lead the student to further study.

There are several noteworthy new emphases in the book. The problem of the needs and developmental tasks of youth receives the detailed attention that it has long merited. The two chapters on the curriculum are written intelligently and with due attention to recent problems and developments, although they could have been written in considerably greater detail and could have included more specific illustrations and examples, without exceeding the scope of the book. On the other hand, the two excellent chapters on the extra-curriculum are somewhat long in proportion to other topics. The chapters on the pupil personnel program give well-deserved attention to the several phases of the guidance and counseling service, but it is not made sufficiently clear that pupil personnel services also include the work of attendance workers, social workers, psychologists, school physicians, dentists, nurses, and testing specialists. The chapters on evaluation rightly point out that overemphasis on test scores is detrimental to a broader concept of evaluation.

Many good features and some lacks have been mentioned, and the judgment may be made that, on the whole, the authors of this introductory textbook have written in such a way that students will receive the help they need in understanding the nature of secondary education. The book is recommended to college teachers of such courses.

FRANK S. ALBRIGHT

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JOHN P. WYNNE, *General Education in Theory and Practice.* New York 10: Bookman Associates, 1952. Pp. 252.

This treatise on general education is by an established author of books in the educational field. It is in essence an application to general education of a point of view developed in the earlier book, *Philosophies of Education*, by the same author. Eight of the nineteen chapters, or almost half of the approximately four hundred pages in the earlier book, are given over to identification and discussion of six "essential features of educational experience" which, in the second chapter of this later book, are restated as

the six "qualities of experience" that "are the philosophy of general education and the aims of general education all at the same time" (p. 53). These ends are designated as "functional contingency," "widening sociality," "pervasive interest," "creative originality," "intelligent choice," and "reflective purpose" (p. 47). The remainder, also, of the new book is closely geared to the point of view fostered in *Philosophies of Education*. Clues to the earlier book's trend and emphasis may be supplied by reporting that it is dedicated to Dewey, Kilpatrick, and Bode, and that its index displays large numbers of references to their writings, more to Dewey than to the others.

In *General Education in Theory and Practice* chapters following the second have to do with subject matter, organization of courses, methods of teaching, extracurriculum activities, evaluation, in-service preparation for teaching general education, preparation of students for teaching general education, admission of students, administrative responsibility, and theories of general education. That the emphasis in these chapters is consistent with the aims of general education as formulated may be judged by the line of argument in several.

The chapter on subject matter reviews briefly the possible contributions to general education of fields like science and mathematics, fine arts, language arts, philosophy, and religion and insists that "the desirable qualities of experience constitute the guiding principles" of selection of materials and that "emphasis should be on perspective and general patterns rather than on specific procedures and facts" (p. 72). The chapter on organization of courses advocates the reflective analysis of existing courses for their contribution to general education, identifies the techniques of designing courses, such as the survey, single-subject, fusion, core, and multiple-function courses, and contends that all teachers, no matter what their fields of specialization, are under obligation to emphasize the ends of general education. The chapter on extracurriculum activities maintains that they are virtually a part of the curriculum, although at the play level rather than at the work level, and that they should foster the same qualities of experience as should be fostered by curricular activities. Procedures in evaluation, focused on the qualities of experience as criteria, should be "so designed as to test general principles rather than isolated facts and skills" (p. 136), and "students, teachers, and administrators all should participate in evaluation" (p. 142). "Evaluation is not only a means to general education; it is an aspect of general education itself" (p. 146). The chapter on admission contends that general education is for all; that, in consequence, all normal high-school graduates should be admitted to college; and that their subsequent pursuit of the specialized curriculums available should be in accordance with the institution's guidance policy. Argument in other chapters is in similar logical integration with the philosophy developed in the chapter on the ends of general education.

Comment should be made on the words "theory" and "practice" in the title of the book. The prospective reader should not be misled by these terms. Recognition of practice in the book is given largely through succinct *proposal* of practices in applying the theory presented. The book is not to be regarded as a comprehensive exposition of practices, as is, for example, *General Education in Action*, by B. Lamar Johnson (reviewed by this writer in the December, 1952, *School Review*). Johnson's book is an extensive analytical report of diverse practices in the junior colleges of California.

Another desirable comment concerns the author's assertion in the Preface that the book "may be used as a text for courses in higher education" (p. 10). If by "text" he means text*book*, the statement seems unacceptable, since courses in higher education require a more inclusive treatise than is here afforded.

These strictures are not to say that the book does not present an illuminating advocacy of an important theory of general education. The author is correct in urging that the book "furnishes administrators and faculty members with a concise account of significant alternatives involved in their practical efforts to improve general education" (p. 9). In doing so, the book is to be regarded as a useful reference on general education either in courses or out. While the discussion is directed mainly to the collegiate level, the theory is no less applicable to elementary- and secondary-school levels.

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FLORENCE FILTEN FRENCH, WILLIAM B. LEVENSON, and VERA COBER ROCKWELL. *Radio English.* New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xiv+368. $3.60.

Among hundreds of textbooks on speech and English designed to make boys and girls more effective when they talk and write, *Radio English* is unique in that broad aims are attempted through understanding and practice in one field, namely, radio and television.

The book is divided into five parts and an Appendix. Part I is "Continuity in the Radio Program"; Part II, "The News by Radio"; Part III, "Talk on the Radio"; Part IV, "The Radio Play"; and Part V, "Television Today." The Appendix includes a play for radio production, a glossary of radio and television terms, and a selected bibliography.

Of the book's various merits, the most outstanding is the opportunity it gives to students who use it to participate actively in projects which are important and meaningful to them.

The style is colorful and adapted to students of high-school and junior-college age. For example, boys and girls are motivated by radio vernacular, and such terms as *ad lib, on beam, cross fade, flub, ham, take it away,* and *on the button,* give them the feeling of being on the inside of a profession of adventure. Soon they accept in the same spirit *andante, crescendo, diminuendo, frequency modulation, closed circuit, legato, pianissimo, remote control, sotto,* and similar terms, and finally, without pressures, reach adult understanding and proficiency.

The practice situations in the book are real. The authors have capitalized on the fact that radio and television programs are made up of continuity, newscasts, talks, interviews, discussions, plays, and music and are part of the daily experiences of practically everyone in the capacity of participator or listener. The assorted forms of presentation are utilized for a varied and original series of speech activities of graduated difficulty, beginning with simple continuity in which the individual merely announces himself and ending with the presentation of a play in which the ideas, plot, dialogue, and sound effects are all original.

The projects are not limited to the subject matter of speech and English. They cut across boundaries and include art, music, science, mathematics, history—all integrated into real life experiences.

Practically every unit includes carefully selected or created illustrations and scripts which make explanations clear and which add to the rapid systematic progression that is characteristic of the textbook.

Bearing in mind that scientific studies have established the wisdom of teaching speech directly as well as indirectly for maximum improvement, the authors introduce the elements of the process, one at a time, in connection with a fitting activity. Controlled breathing; appropriate rate, pitch, quality, and volume of voice; acceptable pronunciation; effective language, including structure, word choice, and levels of formality are taught clearly and thoroughly, in a natural order, and always functionally.

There is a marked absence of meaningless, isolated drill.

The book is attractive in appearance, the print is clear, the illustrations are helpful, and the chapters and topics are clearly labeled.

Some students and teachers may question the advisability of devoting a full semester or a year to practice in the area of radio alone when improvement in face-to-face talk is a more urgent need—conversation in and out of the home, reports in the classroom, discussion in school and community meetings, and acting before informal and formal audiences. Critics may wish that the authors had made clear a broader aim for discussion, showing how discussion may be used in problem-solving, as it is often used in a true democracy, rather than used discussion merely as a means of encouraging students to talk freely and lose inhibitions. In such a presentation more universally accepted types would be clarified and final decision-making would be included. But these are minor questions about a book which promises to have a wide and successful use.

GLADYS L. BORCHERS

University of Wisconsin

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

Clinical Studies in Reading. II—With Emphasis on Vision Problems. Edited by HELEN M. ROBINSON. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 77. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. x+190. $3.75.

Educational Freedom in an Age of Anxiety. Edited by H. GORDON HULLFISH. Twelfth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1953. Pp. xviii+230. $3.00.

ENGELHARDT, N. L.; ENGELHARDT, N. L., JR.; and LEGGETT, STANTON. *Planning Elementary School Buildings.* New York 18: F. W. Dodge Corp., 1953. Pp. 268. $12.50.

GOTTLOBER, A. B. *Understanding Stuttering.* New York 16: Grune & Stratton, 1953. Pp. x+274. $5.50.

HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J. *Human Development and Education.* New York 3: Longmans, Green & Co., 1953. Pp. x+338. $4.00.

MOUSTAKAS, CLARK E. *Children in Play Therapy: A Key to Understanding Normal and Disturbed Emotions.* New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. x+218. $3.50.

The Teacher of the Social Studies. Edited by JACK ALLEN. Twenty-third Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington 6: National Council for the Social Studies, 1952. Pp. vi+248. $3.00 paper; $3.50 cloth.

A Television Policy for Education: Proceedings of the Television Programs Institute Held under the Auspices of the American Council on Education at Pennsylvania State College, April 21–24, 1952. Edited by CARROLL V. NEWSOM. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1952. Pp. xx+266. $3.50.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

BLUMENTHAL, JOSEPH C.; FRANK, ROBERT; ZAHNER, LOUIS; and SCHENDLER, SYLVAN. *Living Language:* Grade IX, pp. x+438, $2.68; Grade X, pp. x+438, $2.68; Grade XI, pp. x+438, $2.72; Grade XII, pp. viii+426, $2.72. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1953.

BUTLER, CHARLES H. *Arithmetic for High*

Schools. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1953. Pp. xvi+336. $2.40.

CAPARO, JOSE A. *Desire for Gold and Conquest: The Story of the Empire of the Incas and the Life of Francisco Pizarro*. Boston 20: Christopher Publishing House, 1953. Pp. 736. $5.00.

COLTON, ROBERT G.; DAVIS, GRACE M.; and HANSHAW, EVELYN A. *Living Your English:* Book I, pp. iv+200, $1.00; Tests 1–8, pp. 32; Book II, pp. iv+200, $1.00; Tests 1–8, pp. 32. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1953.

FISHER, AILEEN. *Holiday Programs for Boys and Girls*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc., 1953. Pp. x+374. $3.50.

MEREDITH, FLORENCE L., M.D.; IRWIN, LESLIE W.; and STATON, WESLEY M. *Health and Fitness*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1953 (second edition). Pp. x+340. $3.20.

OBOURN, ELLSWORTH S.; HEISS, ELWOOD D.; and MONTGOMERY, GAYLORD C. *Science in Everyday Life*. New York 3: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. viii+612.

ROSS, JACOB M.; NIEMAN, EGBERT W.; and BOWMAN, MARY RIVES. *Adventures for Readers:* Book I, pp. xii+498, $3.04; Book II, pp. x+500, $3.04. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1953.

RUSSELL, DAVID H., and GUNN, MARY AGNELLA. Ginn Basic Readers: *Windows on the World*. Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1953. Pp. 444. $2.44.

WALTZ, EMELYN. *Far Eastern History*. Boston 20: Christopher Publishing House, 1953 (revised). Pp. 578. $5.00.

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WILLIAMS, JESSE FEIRING. *Narcotics: The Study of a Modern Problem. A Manual of Basic Information for Teachers*. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1952. Pp. viii+36.

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ARMED FORCES INFORMATION AND EDUCATION, DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE. Armed Forces Talk: No. 428, *Police of the Armed Forces*, pp. 16; No. 429, *What's Right with the United States*, pp. 16; No. 430, *The Geneva Convention and You*, pp. 16. Washington 25: Government Printing Office, 1952. $0.05 each.

Desirable Athletic Competition for Children. Report of the Joint Committee on Elementary Competition for Children of Elementary and Junior High School. Washington 6: American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1952. Pp. 46. $0.50.

"Economic Status of Teachers in 1952–53." Special Memo of the Research Division of the National Education Association. Washington 6: National Education Association, 1952. Pp. 26. $0.25.

Free and Inexpensive Teaching Aids for the Language Arts. Compiled by IRWIN J. SULOWAY. Chicago Schools Journal, Vol. XXXIV, Nos. 3–4. Chicago 21: Chicago Teachers College, 1952. Pp. 24.

General Biology: 10th Year. Curriculum Bulletin, 1951–1952 Series, No. 7. Brooklyn 2: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1952. Pp. 102.

GLENNON, VINCENT J., and HUNNICUTT, C. W. *What Does Research Say about Arithmetic?* Washington 6: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1952. Pp. iv+46. $0.50.

Indiana and Midwest School Building Planning Conference: Proceedings—Keeping Ahead of the Children. Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University,

Vol. XXVIII, No. 5. Bloomington, Indiana: Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University, 1952. Pp. 112. $1.00.

The Job Ahead for Defense Mobilization. Eighth Quarterly Report to the President by the Director of Defense Mobilization, January 1, 1953. Washington 25: Government Printing Office. Pp. iv+52. $0.30.

LOCKHART, HELEN S. "Nutrition Education Resources for Schools." New York 17: Distributed by the Nutrition Foundation, Inc., [n.d.]. Chart. $0.25.

MEECE, LEONARD E.; ADAMS, HAROLD P.; ECKEL, HOWARD; and HOPPER, ROBERT L. *Twenty-five Years of Service to Kentucky Schools.* Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XXV, No. 2. Lexington, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1952. Pp. 64. $0.50.

Nutrition Education in Elementary and Secondary Schools. Edited by HELEN S. LOCKHART and F. EUGENIA WHITEHEAD. New York 17: Nutrition Foundation, Inc., 1952. Pp. 44. $1.00.

Reading for Meaning. Proceedings of the 34th Annual Education Conference Held at the University of Delaware March 7, 8, 1952, Vol. III. Compiled by RUSSELL G. STAUFFER. Newark, Delaware: Reading Clinic, School of Education, University of Delaware, 1952. Pp. x+78. $1.50.

TALLMAN, MARJORIE. *Dictionary of Civics and Government.* New York 16: Philosophical Library, 1953. Pp. 292. $5.00.

United States Army Occupational Handbook: A Manual for Civilian Guidance Counselors and Students, pp. xii+194; *U.S. Army Career Field*, Nos. 1–30. Washington 25: Office of the Adjutant General, Department of the Army, [n.d.].

FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY, OFFICE OF EDUCATION:

Bulletin 1952, No. 10—*Education in Turkey* by ABUL H. K. SASSANI. Pp. viii+96. $0.30.

Bulletin 1952, No. 13—*Schools at Work in 48 States: A Study of Elementary School Practices.* Pp. x+138. $0.35.

Circular No. 356—"Checklists for Public School Adult Education Programs" by HOMER KEMPFER with the assistance of MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE ON EVALUATION, ADULT EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. Pp. 18 (processed). $0.15.

Circular No. 357—"Eight Measures for Evaluating Educational Programs for the Foreign Born" by HOMER KEMPFER with the advice of MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION OF THE FOREIGN BORN OF THE ADULT EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. Pp. 14 (processed). $0.15.

Directory of Secondary Day Schools 1951–52: Showing Accredited Status, Enrollment, Staff, and Other Data by MABEL C. RICE. Pp. xviii+170. $1.00.

Misc. No. 17, 1952—*Science Facilities for Secondary Schools: Guiding Principles and Suggestions for Planning and Developing Instructional Facilities for Science Teaching* by PHILIP G. JOHNSON. Pp. vi+38. $0.25.

Pamphlet No. 112, 1952—*Some Problems in the Education of Handicapped Children* by ROMAINE P. MACKIE. Pp. iv+12. $0.15.

UNITED NATIONS:

United Nations at Work: No. 1, *Human Rights in the United Nations* by CHARLES MALIK (Publications 1952. 1. 26), pp. 22; No. 2, *The Record and Responsibilities of the Economic and Social Council by* SYED AMJAD ALI (Publications 1952. 1. 27), pp. 36; No. 3, *World Social Situation Today* (Publications 1952. 1. 29), pp. 42; *Tanganyika, Its Present and Its Future* (Publications 1952. 1. 28), pp. 28. $0.15 each.

UNESCO (United States Sales Agent: Columbia University Press, New York 27): Occasional Papers in Education:

No. 16—"The Delhi Public Library Project" by FRANK M. GARDNER. Pp. 26 (processed).

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THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Volume LXI * APRIL 1953 * *Number 4*

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

*

SCIENCE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

FIVE REPORTS of national committees have discussed science education during the past twenty years: (1) *A Program for Teaching Science*, the Thirty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, 1932; (2) *Science in General Education*, Progressive Education Association, 1937; (3) *Redirecting Science Teaching in the Light of Personal-Social Needs*, American Council of Science Teachers, National Committee on Science Teaching, 1942; (4) *Education for All American Youth*, Educational Policies Commission, 1944; and (5) *Science Education in American Schools*, Forty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part 1, 1947.

Latest report on science A new report, "Science in Secondary Schools Today," appears in the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* for January, 1953. This report was planned and prepared under the guidance of the Committee on Special Bulletins of the National Science Teachers Association (the largest, most comprehensive, and most active association for science teachers).

The purpose of the bulletin is best expressed in the last paragraph of the Foreword written by Robert H. Carleton, executive secretary of the association:

> Adding up one word and another, what we seem to be striving for through our efforts with this issue of the *Bulletin* is the development of greater teamwork by high-school principals and their science teachers. We in the science classrooms need the stimulation, encouragement, and leadership of our principals. No one is in a more favorable position than the high-school principal when it comes to opportunities for on-the-job stimulation of professional improvement. No one is more zealous than the science teacher in wanting to see a sound and effective program of science instruction for all boys and girls. The opportunities for educational improvements in science are numerous, they are practical,

they are inexpensive in terms of time and money. Through joint efforts in the better utilization of the programs, services, and publications of professional societies for science teachers, these teachers and their principals can make tremendous headway along the path toward more functional, more effective education for all.

The bulletin is divided into five chapters. Chapter i, "Science Education in American High Schools," deals with objectives of science education as seen by the administrator and the teacher, the trends in course offerings and enrolments, science in large schools and in small schools, and the implications that the great increase in the teaching of elementary science has for high-school science.

Chapter ii is concerned with "Curriculum Problems and Policies in Science Education." There is a separate article upon the trends in each of the science courses now taught in high school. The articles in this chapter should be of special interest to administrators since they provide a guide for the evaluation of science courses.

Changes in objectives and in theories of learning have outmoded the practices of the traditional laboratory. Chapter iii, "Experience and Experiment," deals with the role of the modern laboratory in science education.

Chapter iv, "Aids to Instruction in High-School Science," discusses the role of the textbook, workbook, laboratory manual, audio-visual aids, radio, television, science fairs, and evaluation of science instruction.

The last chapter deals with special problems in high-school science education, such as teaching scientific attitudes and methods, the atomic age, conservation education, and America's need for more scientists and engineers.

In the writer's judgment this report is one of the best that has been made in the field of science education. Separate copies of the January, 1953, *Bulletin* in which it appears may be obtained at $1.50 a copy from the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Washington 6, D.C.

Facilities for science-teaching

Another contribution to science-teaching has been made by a Special Committee of the National Science Teachers Association under the chairmanship of Philip G. Johnson, specialist for science in the Office of Education. The report of this committee is published by the Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. It is entitled *Science Facilities for Secondary Schools* (Misc. No. 17), and it may be purchased from the Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., for $0.25 a copy.

It has been many years since the publication of any authoritative report on the planning of classrooms and other facilities for science classes. In the meantime, many of the objectives of high-school science courses and the course offerings themselves have been modified. The laboratory used to be thought of as a place where students

followed through the prescribed directions in a laboratory manual. With the change in our ideas of the function of laboratory experiences in science has come a change in the requirements for proper facilities so that the classroom and laboratory become part of a single, unified body of experiences. A few excerpts from the Foreword illustrate the purpose and scope of the report on *Science Facilities for Secondary Schools:*

> This publication has been prepared to give help in planning space and other instructional facilities for science in secondary schools. It is anticipated that the suggestions will be helpful not only to science supervisors and teachers, but also to school administrators, architects, boards of education, and school housing specialists, who share the responsibility for planning and developing school facilities for science instruction.
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> . . .
>
> *Science Facilities for Secondary Schools* presents those principles which are basic to the planning of instructional facilities for science at all levels of elementary and secondary schools. However, the principles are discussed primarily with reference to the small high schools because there are many such schools and sources of information for these schools are relatively few and inaccessible. The bibliography calls attention to sources for additional information and suggestions.

The members of this committee were exceedingly well qualified to prepare this much-needed publication. It answers most of the problems encountered by teachers and administrators in planning science facilities for new buildings or for remodeling the facilities already available.

Biology in high school School administrators and high-school teachers of biology will find much useful information about trends in the teaching of biology in *The Teaching of General Biology in the Public High Schools of the United States* (Bulletin 1952, No. 9, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education). This study, made by W. Edgar Martin, specialist for biological science, in the Division of State and Local School Systems in the Office of Education, reports on the courses in biological science offered in public high schools, enrolments in general biology, number of teachers of general biology, organization of courses, nature of laboratory work, laboratory and supplementary facilities, the equipment used in teaching the course, appropriations for equipment and supplies, and innovations and problems related to the teaching of general biology. The findings are based on data collected for the school year 1949–50, from a representative sampling of the nation's public high schools.

The study shows that biology is the only science course which has had consistent increases in the high-school enrolments throughout the period for which information is available. Traditionally, biology has been a tenth-grade subject and still is taught in that grade in the great majority of schools. There is some evidence, however, that biology is being increasingly taught in Grade IX. This shift has been brought about by the tremendous increase in the amount of science taught in the

elementary school. The major emphasis of the courses in Grades VII–IX has been on physical science. Since many high-school administrators feel that there is too much overlapping in these grades, some schools have eliminated general science as a required subject in Grade IX and have substituted general biology. This trend is shown in the following figures: general biology is required in the college-preparatory curriculum in 41.1 per cent of the schools, 36.6 per cent require it in the vocational curriculums, and 32.8 per cent require it in the general-education curriculum.

When biology was first introduced into the high-school curriculum in about 1910, the course consisted of a series of short courses in botany, zoölogy, and physiology. A survey conducted by this editorial writer as part of the National Survey of Secondary Education in 1932 showed that this method of organization still persisted in 80 per cent of the courses of study analyzed. The courses were essentially descriptive in character, and most of the student's time was spent in memorizing details of structures. Principles were usually treated in separate topics at the end of the course and had little relation to the earlier parts of the course. The application of biological principles for a better understanding of the problems of living was not considered.

Interestingly enough, the present study shows that 12.6 per cent of the schools reporting still base their courses upon specialized treatments of botany, zoölogy, and physiology. The course organization which occurs most frequently, in 76.5 per cent of the schools offering biology, is that based on principles related to the whole field of biology. This type of organization lends itself to a problem treatment in which the generalizations of biology are in the focus of attention and the morphological details which formerly supplied the main subject matter of the course are reduced to those which are necessary to make the generalizations meaningful.

If the data collected represent what is really happening in the field of biology, we have indeed witnessed a revolution. However, recent observations made by this writer of the teaching of biology in high schools throw some doubt on the probability that such a revolution has occurred.

The difficulty has been, and still is, that teachers are prepared by the universities in the special subjects of botany, zoölogy, and physiology rather than in the field of biology. A teacher prepared in zoölogy is still inclined to teach zoölogy rather than an integrated course in biology. The writer finds that the majority of the older teachers who taught the specialized subject for years are not at all happy about teaching biology. They still long for the good old days when a month could be spent upon learning all the details about a frog and a crayfish and many hours could be spent by the pupil in dissecting the animal and

making drawings of what he was supposed to see. The writer suspects that many of the schools reporting that biology is organized around the principles of biology are giving lip service to a trend rather than reflecting an actual shift in emphasis.

Basing the course on principles The federal bulletin shows also that 10.9 per cent of the courses are based on topics selected for importance in daily living. A course which is organized somewhat along these lines and which makes a considerable departure from the traditional biology courses has been published by the Board of Education of the City of New York under the title *General Biology: 10th Year* (Curriculum Bulletin, 1951–52 Series, No. 7). The course is divided into nine units: "Why We Study Biology," "Why We Behave the Way We Do," "How the Body Works," "Nutrition," "Preventing and Controlling Disease," "Microörganisms and Household Pests," "Reproduction," "Heredity," and "The Pageant of the Past."

Each unit is divided into problems, and each problem is focused on an understanding of some human activity. For example, in the unit, "Why Do We Behave the Way We Do," the problems are as follows:

What activities can we perform at birth?
What new activities do we learn as we grow up?
How do we learn something new?
How do memory and reasoning depend on brain structure?
What is meant by intelligence?
How do emotions affect learning?
Why do people react differently to the sam situation?
Why is adolescence considered an awkwar age?

Two useful textbooks Quite often, forward looking courses of stud are ahead of the progres made by textbooks. When this hap pens, the course of study is not likel to be put to effective use becaus teachers, as a rule, are accustomed t following some basic textbook. Whe making surveys, the author has found many school systems with a well-formulated course of study. Classroom visitation, however, showed that the teachers were still following some basic book.

Two recently revised textbooks in biology, however, appear to be focused upon the same kinds of outcomes as the recommended New York course. *Basic Biology for High Schools* by Carroll Lane Fenton and Paul E. Kambly (Macmillan Co., 1953) includes the following units: "Living Things and Their World," "The Make-up of Organisms," "Groups and Kinds of Organisms," "Foods for the Living World," "Feeding the Animal Kingdom," "Organs, Systems, and Health," "Producing New Organisms," "Old Characters and New Ones," "How Living Things Have Changed," "Communities and Control," and "Conserving Our World and Ourselves."

High School Biology by Charlotte

L. Grant, H. Keith Cady, and Nathan A. Neal (McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952) includes the following useful units: "The Out-of-Doors in Autumn and Spring," "Food for Living Things," "Food for Body Building," "Body Processes at Work," "Living Things in Action," "Keeping the Body Healthy," "The Story of New Life," "Continuing Life on the Earth," and "Plants and Animals in Balance."

A comparison of the content of the two books and the New York course of study shows a close similarity. With a good course of study to set up the problems and to suggest appropriate experiences with the textbooks and other materials, it would seem that the teaching of biology is finally reaching the stage of maturity.

The McCarran Act and Progress in Science

The McCarran Act, designed to control immigration, has aroused a great deal of controversy. Scientists have protested vigorously against the provisions of the act because it bars the entrance of some foreign scientists to this country. Some foreigners have even been denied visas to enter this country to attend scientific conferences and to share their knowledge with our own scientists. Appearing before the President's Commission on Immigration, Alan T. Waterman, director of the National Science Foundation, warned that America is not self-sufficient when it comes to scientific talent. To illustrate his point, he said:

> Radar, the atomic bomb, jet aircraft, and penicillin were perfected in the United States on the basis of discoveries and research in foreign countries to which we were given ready access. The extent to which the United States needs to draw scientific knowledge from abroad is indicated by an analysis of the nationality of scientists awarded the Nobel prize. During the first twenty years of the Nobel prizes, a total of forty-three awards were made in physical sciences. Fifteen of these went to Germany, twenty-six to other European nations, and only two to Americans. None of the seventeen awards in medicine and physiology went to Americans. Of the sixty awards in the physical sciences in the years 1921–49, forty-four went to European scientists, two to Asian scientists, and fourteen to Americans. Although a considerable number of American scientists have received Nobel prizes, the fact remains that to date three out of four of these awards in science have gone to scientists outside the United States.

It is unfortunate but true that the majority of Americans believe that we are the best in every line of endeavor. Scientists are in agreement that a large fraction of the basic discoveries in science have been made in other countries. It is fairly easy to get funds for some piece of directed research in which the problem to be solved has some practical value. It is much more difficult to get support for basic research. Yet it is true that applied science is based upon the discoveries of pure science in which the sole objective was that of discovering more about the ways in which nature operates. If we are going to bar foreign

scientists from our shores, our scientific progress will suffer in the realms both of pure science and of applied science.

Juvenile Delinquency and Narcotics

Writing in the November, 1952, issue of the *NEA Journal*, Roma Gans, professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, discusses the problem of juvenile delinquency. The extent and spread of juvenile delinquency is shown in the following paragraphs from her article:

> Approximately one million children are getting into trouble with the law each year. Most of these youngsters are between the ages of ten and seventeen. According to FBI statistics for the years 1945 through 1951, boys and girls under eighteen years of age were arrested for such crimes as criminal homicide, auto theft, breaking into and entering property, arson, rape, and possessing and carrying weapons.
>
> Even if the number of juvenile offenders does not increase proportionally with the increase in population, the number of boys and girls who will be in trouble with the law ten years from now if the present rate in delinquency continues will be 1,500,000. And this staggering figure may be optimistic in light of the data of juvenile courts which reveal an increase of 19 per cent in number of cases handled from 1948 to 1951.

One aspect of this problem is the alarming increase in the number of young persons in their teens and early twenties who are arrested for violation of the narcotic laws. This problem is especially acute in the larger cities. A manual giving basic information for teachers concerning narcotics is published by the California State Department of Education. The book, written by Jesse Feiring Williams, is entitled *Narcotics: The Study of a Modern Problem*.

This manual is divided into two parts. Part I supplies information about narcotics—what they are, what effects they have, how a narcotic addict may be recognized; cure of drug addiction, and steps in narcotic control. The second part deals with suggestions for teaching about narcotics—questions on narcotics, how pupils can co-operate in narcotic control, activities for learning about narcotics, and instruction about narcotics at various grade levels. While some states have laws regarding the inclusion of some content concerning narcotics and alcohol, that the teaching has not been generally successful is shown by the increases in drug addiction. This pamphlet provides many suggestions for making the program more effective.

Materials Useful for Teachers

To help in teaching about race

Educators will be interested in a new approach to the study of race relations as presented in a bulletin published by UNESCO, entitled *What Is Race?* This new approach is indicated by a foreword:

> The object of this booklet is to present, in a popular way, certain essential information about the biological aspects of race. Of recent years, discoveries in the field of

human genetics and anthropology have thrown new light on the old problems of how races are formed and the nature of the difference between them. It was felt that certain provisional conclusions reached by scientists who work on such problems could be put into nontechnical language and illustrated—often in a necessarily oversimplified form—so as to make them more easily intelligible to the layman. An acquaintance with the more important of these conclusions is necessary for the proper understanding of the race question as it now exists. At the same time, it should be pointed out that what is stated in the pages that follow does not claim to cover the field of the social sciences or that of race relations. Nor is it specially concerned with social problems and educational measures, which vary in different countries according to local conditions.

The booklet is divided into three parts: (1) "Is There a Pure Race?" (2) "Is There a Superior Race?" and (3) "Are There Unchangeable Race Differences?" Answers to these questions are based upon the effects of the processes of mutation, selection, adaptation, migration, and isolation. The booklet is illustrated with diagrams which present these processes in simplified form. It can be understood easily by pupils of Grade X.

The Appendix is especially valuable. It includes a series of statements regarding the nature of race and race differences which have been formulated and accepted by physical anthropologists and geneticists of international reputation. It also includes some suggestions for group discussions and a bibliography of useful books.

This booklet should be of great value in the study of high-school biology as an example of how the principles of biology may be applied in the solution of problems of great importance in promoting international good will and understanding. It may be obtained at $1.00 a copy from the United States sales agency for UNESCO publications, Columbia University Press, New York 27, New York.

The world we live in Beginning with the issue of December 8, 1952, *Life* magazine started the publication of a series of twelve articles called "The World We Live In." This series they describe as follows:

> A series of major articles, appearing at regular intervals over the course of the next two years, will depict the violent drama in which the planet Earth came to be and the infinitely varied yet ordered pattern of its physical structure and abundant life. For this series, a special team of editors and reporters, aided by the world's best scientific authorities, will direct a score of painters and photograhers in an original summation of the nature of things. The continuing text will be written by Lincoln Barnett, author of *The Universe and Dr. Einstein*. "The World We Live In" will be scientifically accurate yet presented in a clear and dramatic way readily understood by readers without scientific background.

The first of the articles, "The Earth Is Born," describes the birth of our planet, the chief events in its past and present life, and its eventual death. Succeeding articles will deal with "The Three Realms of the Physical

World" (the sea, the land, and the atmosphere), "The Growth and Spread of Life over the Earth," "The Extremes of Earthly Environment," and "The Far Frontiers in Space beyond the Earth." Two of the articles have now appeared. They live up to the advance billing in every respect.

Teachers as leaders of groups

"Group action," "group dynamics," "group discussion," and similar phrases are frequently met in the educational literature of the day. But there is no clear understanding of the effective means for carrying on the process so that necessary policies and decisions can be reached through the action of the groups concerned. Two pamphlets which will help train persons to handle the responsibilities of leading group discussion have recently been received at the editorial office.

The first is *Teachers Prepare for Discussion Group Leadership*, written by Stephen M. Corey, of the Horace Mann–Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation at Teachers College, Columbia University; Paul M. Halverson, of Syracuse University; and Elizabeth Lowe, a classroom teacher in the public schools of Fair Lawn, New Jersey. The pamphlet is published by Teachers College, Columbia University, New York 27, New York, and sells for $0.60 a copy.

The booklet describes a one-day training session that was planned to improve the ability of teacher leaders of discussion groups. The training "was designed for a particular kind of total school staff conference" at West Orange, New Jersey. The first of the book's three chapters tells about the background of the project; chapter ii describes the training session and the training materials; chapter iii reports the evaluation data that were obtained for appraising the results of the entire project. An appendix presents a transcription of the recorded "training tape" and various evaluation forms.

The second publication is entitled *Discussion Guide for Teachers of English*, and it was prepared by a committee of the National Council of Teachers of English under the chairmanship of Kate V. Wofford, of the University of Florida. According to the Introduction:

> The pamphlet is divided into two sections. Part I is the presentation of discussion as a democratic method of finding solutions to problems. Reasons are given for the use of discussion in our democratic society, and a case is presented for its use by teachers. Moreover, an effort is made to point up the techniques used by successful discussion groups, with special emphasis upon the roles assumed and played by the individuals who compose them. Finally, the section closes with a report of a discussion group who took the materials presented in this pamphlet and experimented with them. The report is not only suggestive of the use to which the pamphlet can be put, but it has also the advantage of clarifying both the content of the discussion as well as its process.
>
> Part II deals with a series of problems suitable to discussion groups by teachers interested in the teaching of English.

This pamphlet is sold for $1.00 by the National Council of Teachers of English, 8110 South Halsted Street, Chicago 21, Illinois.

Both pamphlets are of exceptional value to all persons concerned with the training of discussion leaders.

Conferences and Workshops for Administrators

Making Administration serve our educational needs is the theme of a series of related conferences and workshops to be held at the University of Chicago during July and August. The Midwest Administration Center, with Francis S. Chase as director, is sponsoring the conferences in collaboration with the American Association of School Administrators and other institutions and organizations. This is part of a nation-wide Cooperative Program in Educational Administration supported by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

The conferences will be of interest to principals, supervisors, superintendents, members of state departments of education, faculty members of institutions preparing administrators, school-board members, and citizens interested in schools. Each conference will be centered on problems arising in some aspect of administration. The topics to be dealt with are scheduled as follows:

July 6–7, Developing Leadership for Improved Instruction

July 13–14, Improving Consultative Services to Schools

July 20–21, Improving the Effectiveness of Boards of Education

July 27–28, Creating Effective Organization for Education

August 3–4, Developing Sound Finance Policies for Education

August 10–11, Developing Public Understanding and Responsibility for Education

For persons who wish to secure credit for conference participation and additional study, there will be a workshop on "Educational Administration and Supervision" (Education Course 330A, B, C). Attendance at any two of the conferences and completion of related workshop requirements will earn one course credit. A participant may earn one, two, or three course credits, depending upon the number of conferences attended and of related requirements completed.

Copies of the conference and workshop programs, with instructions for securing living accommodations, may be obtained from either Francis S. Chase, director of the Midwest Administration Center, or Herman G. Richey, secretary of the Department of Education, both at the University of Chicago, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

Wilbur L. Beauchamp

Who's Who for April

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by Wilbur L. Beauchamp, professor of the teaching of science at the University of Chicago. The University of Chicago Committee on Educational Television reports an investigation of the University's responsibility for, and opportunities in, educational television, with specific attention to aims, principles of operation, criteria of success, and suggestions for programs. Because of its timeliness and importance, the report takes up more space than can usually be allotted to a single article. Jonathon C. McLendon, assistant professor of education at Duke University, Durham, North Carolina, points out that when students' scores on the same tests are compared and when the enlarged scope of the subject is considered, teachers of high-school English are found to be doing as good a job as, if not a better one than, did their counterparts of years gone by. Walter V. Kaulfers, professor and curriculum specialist in language arts at the College of Education, University of Illinois, reviews the per cents of high-school students enrolled in foreign languages in the individual states and breaks down the figures for the various languages. Charles Brodsky, chairman of the social-studies department of Central Commercial and Technical High School, Newark, New Jersey, distinguishes between unsuccessful and successful teachers, pointing out that the good teacher must constantly be on the alert for new methods and presentations to inspire and interest today's student, who has different attitudes toward learning and culture than he himself or previous students may have had. Clayton M. Gjerde, associate professor of education at San Diego State College, and Marvin D. Alcorn, professor of education at the same institution, present a list of selected references on extra-class activities.

Reviewers of books L. A. Van Dyke, professor of education, State University of Iowa. Carroll D. Champlin, professor of education, Pennsylvania State College.

TELEVISION AND THE UNIVERSITY

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION

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EDITORIAL NOTE: In 1945, television came out of the laboratory and into the lives of the American people. In that year the Federal Communications Commission began its allocation of channels to those who applied for them, assuming that some 394 station assignments were possible. But when these stations began to operate, it was discovered that engineering predictions needed correction. Furthermore, new technological advances indicated that the existing transmitting and receiving equipment might soon become obsolete. Late in 1948, therefore, the FCC announced that it would allocate no more channels until it had had time to study the whole matter.

The decision to delay further allocation gave educational institutions opportunity to organize their forces and to present the case for the reservation of some channels for noncommercial use. A Joint Committee on Educational Television was formed to mobilize resources and present testimony to the FCC. Despite the active opposition of the commercial broadcasters, the educational forces were so articulate and forceful that the FCC gave them first its attention and then its support. On April 11, 1952, it announced that it would once again begin allocation of stations but that a number of them would be reserved for one year, awaiting applications from educational institutions. After this period of one year, the reserved channels would presumably be released for commercial use. The FCC also added a new band for broadcasting, which is not receivable on most present sets. As a result, it became possible to allocate a total of 2,053 new stations, of which 242 were reserved for noncommercial operation.

In Chicago, the one remaining channel—Channel Eleven—on the present band was reserved for educational television. This reservation is in force only until June 2, 1953. A citywide committee made up of representatives of numerous educational agencies in the area has been exploring the possibilities of operating a television station on Channel Eleven. Chancellor Lawrence A. Kimpton, of the University of Chicago, and the University's Board of Radio felt that the responsibilities and opportunities of the University in the operation of such a station should be explored by a faculty Committee on Educational Television. This committee was set up and charged with the following duties:

First, to examine the concept of educational television and recommend any general

policies which should govern the University's participation in its operation;

Second, to explore the resources of the University, its allied agencies, and the community in order to develop program ideas which would be sound educationally and which would use the medium of television to the best advantage.

The Committee had only a short time to make its study and prepare its report, and it did not originally plan to publish the document. However, members of the Editorial Committee of the *School Review* believe that the report is of great general interest and that it contains many ideas of value to other groups concerned with educational television. The Committee on Educational Television and Chancellor Kimpton consented to the suggestion that a major portion of the report be presented here. The original document has been abbreviated for publication, particularly by selecting only a sample of the program ideas that were included.

The members of the Committee on Educational Television are:

CYRIL O. HOULE, *chairman*, Professor of Education and Dean of University College

REUEL N. DENNEY, Associate Professor of Social Sciences in the College

DONALD HORTON, Assistant Professor of Sociology

JOHN O. HUTCHENS, Professor and Chairman of the Department of Physiology

WARREN C. JOHNSON, Professor and Chairman of the Department of Chemistry, Associate Dean of the Division of Physical Sciences, and Scientific Adviser on the Argonne Laboratory

CARL H. KRAELING, Professor of Oriental Languages and Literature and Director of the Oriental Institute

HENRY W. SAMS, Associate Professor of English in the College and Director of the Summer Quarter

FINAL REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION

THE UNIVERSITY'S OBJECTIVES IN ENGAGING IN TELEVISION

Television is a great new instrument which a university may use in achieving its traditional objectives.

In broad terms, those objectives are commonly thought to be (1) the acquisition of knowledge, (2) the preservation of knowledge, and (3) the transmission of knowledge. In transmitting knowledge, there are three groups with which the university works directly: those young people who are to be educated to carry on scholarly traditions, those young people who are to be educated for the professions and for responsible leadership in society, and such adults as wish to further their education. Less directly but equally powerfully, the university also "transmits knowledge" by being a constant influence for good in society. It takes its place among those agencies which act to improve the culture, the quality of living, and the rational accomplishment of social ends. Intellectually speaking, it is foremost among these agencies and therefore must accept some responsibility for leading them.

THE ACQUISITION OF KNOWLEDGE

The Committee believes that television can have a limited use so far as re-

search is concerned. The study of the communication process now carried on in several parts of the University will certainly be enhanced by the opportunity for direct access to television programing and controlled audience research. Furthermore, television may be of assistance in appealing for data or for materials. It may even provide the medium for organizing fairly systematically a group of observers or workers who can provide data to research scholars, paralleling in this way the work of the Harvard Observatory in astronomy. While it is possible that in these ways individual discoveries of marked importance may be made, the Committee believes that research activities could and should take up only a modest amount of time in the total program offering of Channel Eleven.

THE PRESERVATION OF KNOWLEDGE

The television screen has little in common with the library, the museum, or the other agencies by means of which the modern university insures that the records of knowledge be preserved. The only value which television would appear to have in meeting this goal is in the file of films and other material which might be created as records of past programs or sources of future ones. This file may prove to be of great importance, and television may turn out to have a great influence on the production of educational films. The Committee feels, however, that the technological preservation of knowledge will be only an incidental by-product of Channel Eleven. On the other hand, preservation of knowledge in the sense of giving it currency among people outside of universities is one of the great potentialities of television.

THE TRANSMISSION OF KNOWLEDGE

It is to the third of the three great objectives of the university that television will make its outstanding contribution. This new invention is a medium of communication of impelling power. It has come upon us all so recently that its significance is hard to grasp. Already the citizens of greater Chicago possess 1,250,000 television sets, and the saturation point is as yet not near. No medium of print—not even the *Chicago Tribune*—comes close to this figure. For the purposes of education, the spread of this new medium of communication is of crucial significance. Television is to the public lecture or appearance as the printed book was to the manuscript. The number of persons who can see and hear an individual speaker or a demonstration has achieved a new order of magnitude. Furthermore, the singular flexibility of the camera and its capacity for detailed and direct observation (already demonstrated in the operating rooms of hospitals) gives to television a qualitative as well as a quantitative advantage.

If the transmission of knowledge is the chief end of educational television, it is appropriate to look more closely

at the use which might properly be made of it by the University of Chicago.

It will not, of course, play a large part in the education which the University gives on its own Quadrangles to those who are preparing to be scholars or to enter the professions or other pursuits of modern citizenship. Our students will presumably look and learn, but, in doing so, they will ordinarily be a part of the larger public which is being served. The production of programs or the operation of the station may have some value for some of our students, but the number will almost certainly be small.

On the other hand, we might reasonably hope that, over the years, educational television may improve the caliber and increase the number of the students who come to us. If Channel Eleven is successful in taking ideas out into the community, if it can help parents to raise their children more intelligently, if it can give teachers a better idea of how to teach, if it can capture the imagination of able young people and give them insights, incentives, and goals, and particularly if the University can be presented in such a fashion that its aspirations and its work are better understood, the result will surely be an improved and a broadened student body.

Television will prove of enormous value in the education of those mature members of our society who wish to continue to learn. From its beginning, the University has considered adult education to be one of its central tasks. It was the first university in America to build extension programs into its basic structure; where it has led, the other universities have followed. Television presents a great new frontier for adult education, and the University's proper role now is, as it has always been, that of a pioneer.

When Channel Eleven is placed in operation, countless Chicagoans will turn to it with the conscious purpose of improving themselves. They will have, from the beginning, the same sense of dedication and involvement that has characterized the "Third Programme" of the British Broadcasting Corporation. As time goes on, other people will become interested in those reaches of knowledge and art about which they know nothing and with which they have had no previous contact. The Committee believes that, over the years, there would come into existence a large body of consistent and conscientious viewers for whom television will have brought the ideal of lifelong learning much nearer to realization.

But the value of educational television will not stop here. Indeed, it may well be said that the chief objective has not yet been mentioned. It is, in brief, the power that television will give the University to strengthen its influence in the improvement of our society. Universities are vast storehouses of knowledge which needs to be translated into action. If the things which our professors know are given

articulate expression, they will become a part of the stock of ideas which are discussed and acted upon. The facts, controversies, and concerns of the various academic disciplines may be presented for their own inherent values and in such a way that they may all be brought to bear on decisions which the individual citizen must make. Standards of excellence and good taste may be set. In countless ways, both direct and subtle, the programs presented on Channel Eleven will have their effect.

Furthermore, the quality of the University is a product not only of research and discussion among its own members but also of the life of the community in which it functions. By subjecting themselves through the use of television to the examination and judgment of their communities, university faculties may grow in wisdom as well as in practical influence. No other medium offers to faculties so immediate a communication with the public, together with so little compromise of their essential independence.

Among other things, educational television should have some impact upon commercial television. The Committee accepts the fact that commercial stations, with their tremendous resources, must be assumed as a necessary, desirable, and usually predominant source of programs for mass audiences. Such stations must also accept the fact that, to the viewer, Channel Eleven is only a flick of the selector away from them. Educational television is a real competition, and they must meet it. Many of those who are employed in commercial television are eager to improve it, but they cannot convince the advertisers and the station managers. An outside point of reference and quality is needed. It is needed equally by the external critics of commercial television. As Channel Eleven grows in excellence, it will provide at least one standard against which other stations may be judged. In the long run, an educational station may raise the level of quality of all television.

Some of the comments on preceding pages may have suggested that television could be a powerful public relations instrument for the University. The Committee believes that one of the consequences of participation in Channel Eleven would indeed be a strengthening of the relationship between the University and the Chicago community. There can be no doubt, however, of the fact that direct promotion of the University's facilities would be unworthy, undignified, and self-defeating. The hortatory intonation of commercial advertising is precisely the tone of voice which educational television should avoid. If the University is respected today, it is because it performs its basic functions well. It can gain further respect by television only if it directs its attention to the proper ends which should be achieved.

In conclusion, then, the broad objectives of educational television are identical with these which should characterize all of the activities of a

university. Most distinctively, however, television should be designed and used primarily as an instrument of adult education and of broad community improvement. As such, it will have a powerful impact on both the outside world and upon the University itself. For the quality of a university is related to, and dependent upon, the quality of the society of which it is a part.

SOME PRINCIPLES OF OPERATION

In its recommendations as to how the University might use television as an instrument of general education, the Committee has been guided by certain conceptions of television as a means of communication. The program ideas presented in this report rest upon a number of assumptions about both the possibilities and the limitations of television evaluated from the point of view of the purposes of the University. The Committee has not made a systematic study of the medium, but it has organized the common-sense observations of its members in order to facilitate its work.

COMPARISON OF TELEVISION WITH OTHER MEDIA

The extraordinary versatility of television in comparison with other means of mass communication was one of the considerations plainly acknowledged in the favorable attitude of the faculty toward the Committee's proposal that the University of Chicago should participate in the operation of Channel Eleven. This versatility is best demonstrated by comparing television with other media that have been used by the University. It is important in making such comparisons to observe that in television we should be using not merely a novel physical instrument of reproduction, transmission, and reception, but a new type of communication network whose economic and social characteristics are of crucial importance to the telecaster.

Television and film.—To begin with, to make a helpful comparison between television and the educational motion-picture film, it must be recognized at once that, although television resembles the film in its production and reproduction of audio-visual images, it differs profoundly from the film in its mode of distribution and, therefore, also in the social structure and physical conditions of the audience which receives the image. The educational film is distributed mechanically to out-of-home audiences whose size is dependent on the seating facilities in the place of projection and on the relative success of more or less elaborate prior arrangements in mobilizing interest and overcoming the obstacles that impede the organization of such groups. The television audio-visual image, whether studio "live" program or film, is distributed by cable and wave to home receivers. Educational film systems in the United States, while they reach many people, do not reach the mass audience in the largest sense. The educational film appears to be most successful in serving special audiences, primarily within institu-

tions such as schools, libraries, museums, offices, and plants. The proposed television station, while it can be employed to reach group audiences (as in daytime broadcasts to school classrooms), will reach a mass audience already created by commercial broadcasting and far beyond the reach of mechanically distributed film.

It may be admitted that, from a technical viewpoint, "live" television production is sometimes handicapped because the "live" image does not go through the careful editing and cutting process of film production. In practice, however, the broadcaster may produce his program first on film, when precise editing is essential, or "live" where other values are more important. We have also heard the comment that the nontelevision projected film is superior in "texture" to the image on television. It may be that on occasion the ideal design of a program may have to be sacrificed because of technical limitations of the television image (especially where color is a necessary element), but this seems a minor restriction. Whatever disadvantages each medium might have theoretically, in practice they serve different ends; and there can be little doubt that television offers much greater possibilities for general adult education.

Television and radio.—In its discussions with other members of the faculty, the Committee occasionally encountered the argument that for certain purposes, such as the broadcasting of music, radio should be used in preference to television. We also heard the opinion expressed that television is not a suitable medium for the transmission of highly conceptualized thought, that print is the necessary medium for this purpose. Our answer to these views is twofold. First, even if these contentions were true, they would be irrelevant, since in fact we do not have access to radio comparable to the anticipated access of television, nor do we have access to any printed medium of mass circulation comparable in its range and impact with television. Second, we believe it unwise to bind ourselves by any such a priori assumptions about what television can or cannot do. We recommend as a basic principle of educational television that it adopt an imaginative and experimental attitude toward the medium.

It should not be presumed that the formulas evident in commercial broadcasting practice suggest more than a start in the development of the television art. The visual qualities of the television screen are emphasized as if it were assumed that the screen is always viewed or must always be viewed. The fact is that it is possible to blank out the screen or use it for nonobjective patterns that may or may not be attended by the audience while audio programs are broadcast over TV. This change of pace from audio-visual to audio can be dramatized in the other direction by shifts from audio-visual to pure visual without audio. It can be assumed that these possibilities and other interest-

ing practices, which are only now being considered by commercial television, might be fully developed by educational television. It should be remembered that a noncommercial broadcaster, who does not have to write off each experiment as a failure if it does not please its first audience, operates with a longer time perspective. The expansion of the art is partly a matter of patiently teaching new expectations and attitudes to new audiences.

IMMEDIACY OF REPORTAGE

The versatility of television distribution is due to its combination of the communicative powers of the sound motion picture with the flexibility and economy of a radio distribution system. The electronic form of television distribution makes possible the direct and instantaneous transmission of an image of on-going events; it cuts out the time-consuming, cumbersome, and expensive distribution procedure required by film and the printed media. Its power to show events at the moment of their occurrence, for example, gives television, like radio, a special significance as a means of mobilizing a community for collective action. From the viewpoint of the university, this mobilization potentiality is probably of little importance; it seems likely that most educational programs would not lose their significance if they were first recorded on film and broadcast later. The commercial broadcasters have found that rebroadcast does not depreciate most of their programs. However, television permits a very flexible schedule, ranging from direct and immediate broadcast of events whose interest is momentary to the broadcast of film material of timeless relevance.

While neither journalistic timeliness nor action-and-opinion mobilization are necessarily high on the list of criteria for university telecasting, it would be unsound to argue that one time is always just as good as another for the presentation of materials that bear implications for contemporary events. It should be a recognized responsibility of the university-as-broadcaster to provide a background of knowledge in depth for the current crises of social action. Furthermore, the definition of "event" employed by commercial TV is noticeably limited to human interest, politics, international news, fashion, and a few other journalistic rubrics. A university might prefer to enlarge or modify such definitions by regarding the announcement of noteworthy changes in scientific theory, or newly observed shifts in social structure, and a variety of other "happenings" as equally interesting "events." The freedom to handle such program materials on an immediate and topical basis would constitute a genuine advantage to the educational broadcaster.

FUGITIVE IMPACT ON THE AUDIENCE

Television broadcasts have the disadvantage of being fugitive, not only fugitive from the viewpoint of the audience, ordinarily leaving no perma-

nent record with the viewer except in memory, but also fugitive in that the broadcaster himself often retains no permanent recording for re-examination or rebroadcasting in the future. However, since methods of recording on film are available, the system is adequately flexible; the telecaster's real problem is to be wise enough to record certain programs that will be valuable in the future, leaving unrecorded those that have only a temporary value.

The circumstance that the audience receives a fugitive communication presents certain problems to the educational telecaster that he has already had some experience with in the use of radio and film. The viewer has no opportunity for concentrated study of television material; and such processes as re-reading, analysis, and the linking of earlier with later phases of exposition have to be provided for in the structure of the program itself. In view of the fact that the University does not anticipate much emphasis on formal procedures of education, these limitations may be of little importance. Where they do prove to be problematic, supplementary aids, such as printed materials, can be used to supply elements of repetition, recall, and continuity to its viewers. In general, the success of an educational broadcasting venture will be measured less by the impact of individual programs than by the cumulative effects of a service through which runs consistently an emphasis on fundamental values.

LOCAL AMBIT OF EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION

The television system, like radio and the newspaper, begins as a local enterprise and may be maintained in whole or in part as a service originating primarily within the community and directed toward the community audience. It is quite different in the field of the action picture film. The prevailing conditions of both entertainment and educational film production and distribution commit them to a national audience. The local dimension of television is of very great significance to the University. Much of the Committee's thought about the role of the University in Channel Eleven contemplates a richness of reciprocal relationships between the University and the city of Chicago. For example, we can imagine the development of a Chicago-centered documentary film service originating within, and distributed to, the community—a service in which the people, events, and problems of the community are given pictorial representation. Conversely, the University itself and its activities will become available to the community in a new way. This does not exclude the telecasting of films and line programs from nonlocal sources. The system is flexible here, too. It can serve as a distribution system for standard films that are not limited in their interest. We expect also to participate in network arrangements with other educational stations, thus sharing programs of more than

local interest (and, incidentally, sharing the production costs).

SIMULTANEITY OF RECEPTION

It is an important characteristic of television, derived from its radio characteristics, that the broadcast is received simultaneously by the members of the audience. Like immediacy, this is an attribute that would be of greatest practical significance in mobilizing common discussion of events of the day, in exciting political controversy, or in organizing a population to deal with emergencies. The University's programs would seldom have such a purpose. Nevertheless, the simultaneous reception of its programs by many people could be expected to give rise to discussion and the exchange of opinion in ways not inherent in other forms of communication. Thus, where two or more members of a family view the received program, they are invited to share information and attitudes during an experience which is novel and provocative to each and are provided with the opportunity to discuss it afterwards while the impression is fresh and stimulating. When people have seen the program simultaneously but separately, it can readily become a topic of conversation in their subsequent contacts. The educational implications of such discussion patterns are rather different from, and in some ways more promising than, the discussion patterns characteristically generated by motion pictures and books. They resemble most, of course, the patterns invoked by the daily newspaper or the weekly magazine.

PLANNED "GROUP" RECEPTION

A system that combines the properties of localism, immediacy, and simultaneity is also a medium through which communication may be effectively addressed to, and by prearrangement received by, the members of organized groups in the community. One of our suggested operating principles is that the University provide such programs for the members of local organizations, especially professional societies, such as those of law, dentistry, medicine, etc., whose members would wish to receive periodic reports on research in progress in their fields. It has also been suggested that there are many ways in which a university's programs may be related to the interests and work of scientific amateurs, hobby groups, and craftsmen. It should not be assumed that to address and reach such selected audiences will always amount to a concurrent exclusion of other audiences. It may well be that programs for such "primary" audiences in the selective sense will generate "secondary" audiences of overhearers; and that what we can learn about these overlappings of the special interest and the general interest will prove to be of great theoretical and tactical instruction for us.

A local broadcasting enterprise will provide many opportunities for direct collaboration between the university-as-broadcaster and the members of its audience, since both are immediately

available to each other in a way in which for example, the distant movie industry is not available to its clientele. Perhaps the most dramatic suggestions we have received in this connection have to do with ways in which members of the audience might collaborate with university scientists in the conduct of massive experiments where hundreds or thousands of independent subjects, experimenters, or observers are required.

CONTINUITY

A local television system devoted entirely to educational purposes provides for continuity and progression in successive programs. The University is not to be restricted to occasional episodes of communication but can organize series of programs on the same theme. When it seemed desirable, such a series could be progressive, in the sense that each program in the series would represent an advance upon the knowledge communicated in the preceding one. When there is continuity of broadcast service, there can be continuity of audience—the building-up over the course of time of a "following," an audience progressively involved in, and committed to, specific programs or predisposed to view many of the programs contributed by the University.

We should observe that the progressive development of an audience can occur in several ways. It may be that, if the audience for programs of a given type increased steadily in number, it would reach a point where the popularization process would begin to accelerate simply because of the number of people involved in it (on the principle that, when enough people are involved in an activity, the rest do not want to be "left out"). On the other hand, it may be that a certain audience, given successively more complex views of the same subject, might become progressively smaller as the capacities of some of its members were exceeded, but with an increase in the average individual grasp of the subject among the remainder. Again, it may be that shifts in the structure of an audience or in the expression of its response to a program make possible an upward revision of intellectual difficulty and quality without significant losses in number.

The relation between programing and these "developments" in the audience is not that progressive and developmental programing guarantees them but that it is one of the devices by which they can be hastened, measured, and assessed. It is quite possible for an audience to show development in ways not contemplated by the producers; and, likewise, it is possible for developmental programs to fail to hold an audience through cumulative experiences. Nevertheless, wherever true cumulations are achieved, they can have profound effects, not only in the amassing of factual knowledge, but in the gaining of an understanding of the University and its work, of the meaning of science and scholarship, and in the sharing of enlightened attitudes and values.

THE "NATURALISM" OF TV REPORTAGE

How a medium like television may be used is as much a question of what the audience will accept as of the technical requirements or possibilities of the instrument. It is the Committee's impression that audiences have learned to expect that programs produced in and transmitted from "natural" locations (e.g., from a university laboratory or clinic) will be conducted in a casual manner and will lack the finish of theatrical performances or of carefully edited documentary film. Where the role of the television camera is to witness "real" events, the expectations of the audience are adjusted to the conditions of life rather than art. We believe that it will be possible to produce many, if not most, of our programs in a casual, natural, and friendly style which does not seek to create illusions.

Television appears to have redefined "glamor" by depreciating some of the histrionic skills associated with the stage, the radio, and the movies and by emphasizing all the elements of performance that favor a semipersonalized relation between the performer and the audience. Some of this change is the result of changes in production methods (rapid rehearsal of live shows with no possibility of retake), and some of it is the result of changes in the reception situation (the casual, informal, unexcited attitude of the home viewer).

Commercial television producers have experimented with a style that clearly differs from theater and movie style, especially in its cultivation of informality and "amateurism." These tendencies are most obvious where television capitalizes on its candid-camera aspects and makes program material of the unpredictable, low-cost, and all-too-human conduct of the studio audience, the street scene, and so on. In more subtle form they appear as the rather artful tendency to make the "casual" itself a new and higher standard of art. In both types of informality and "amateurism," the performer seems to be responding to his status as a guest of the home by making the audience member a guest of the studio.

These precedents are important for us because they have established a pattern of sociability between performer and audience that undercuts the need for highly contrived dramatization in educational television—and, indeed, puts a premium on some of the very informalities by which modern higher education characteristically goes about its work.

CRITERIA OF SUCCESS

The programs offered by the University will be in competition with those of commercial broadcasting, not in the sense of offering similar content but of offering alternatives. What are the possibilities that educational programs can "succeed" in the face of such competition? The present report is evidence that the Committee believes that the conditions for success are favorable. In discussing the grounds for this belief, it is necessary

to treat two separate but related aspects of the question: the criteria of "success" and the favorable conditions of the "market."

When we speak of the competition that educational television can offer commercial television, we need to define our terms. All mass communications are alike in the sense that they compete for attention. Once this is agreed on, certain differences between educational and commercial television emerge more clearly. First, the telecast does not necessarily compete for the largest possible number of viewers, for mass attention. Second, it does not necessarily appeal to the same kind of attention from the viewers, regardless of their number. Third, it does not necessarily obtain attention with, or for, the same kind of commodity that is offered by the commercial television program. The latter generally calls for attention to two commodities, the entertainment and other private values offered by the program, and the commodity referred to in the "commercial." In general, educational telecasts in which an educational value might be "sold" by some process intellectually and artistically distinct from the program itself would probably be ineffective.

We should expect to build up our audiences gradually, over the years, through many conditions and channels of recruitment—our collaboration with professional societies and groups, with local institutions, with segments of the mass audience whose needs are not now being adequately met. We should expect a fruitful interplay between our own increasing proficiency in the production of programs and the rising educational level of the population. In particular, we may look forward to the recruitment of audiences of young people to Channel Eleven through the participation of the public school system, and their continued education, by our own programs as they mature.

As of the present moment, it seems to us that the conditions are very favorable. Commercial broadcasting offers a number of fine programs, but these are but a small proportion of the total broadcast, and many of them come at inconvenient times. In the prime hours of the evening there are many dreary periods when all but the most fanatical seekers after "entertainment" might turn with relief to Channel Eleven. Although we might expect our strongest following to consist at first of people of better-than-average education or those already strongly oriented toward the University, in the long run we might reasonably expect to draw from the relatively uneducated masses. Television, like the film, has the power to provide different levels of meaning for different segments of the audience; even those who cannot absorb fully the conceptual content may be intrigued and stimulated by the visible objects and action or drawn into an effort to understand by their simple human interest in the people who appear in the program. We also think it likely that, though viewers tend to select certain

of the popular programs because of an established preference, much of their viewing may be governed by sheer habit of spending a quota of time before the television set, when they shop among the programs available, with relatively undefined expectations and a readiness to become involved in any program that strikes their interest. We may count on the fact that many will respond, because of their involvement in the life of the community, to programs in which the events and conditions of the city life are reflected, and to others because of their interest in discovering what lies behind the façade of those institutions, such as the University, from which the course of their own lives has excluded them. Some may be drawn in the spirit of snobbery, and others, of condescension. That the initial attitude of many may be hostile simply increases the challenge to us to create a natural and friendly atmosphere of invitation.

It is not the proper function of this Committee to try to establish specific criteria for the success of specific programs or of the University's participation, in general, in educational television. This is one of the major problems to be worked out by the institutions participating in Channel Eleven and similar enterprises elsewhere. It is a problem involving difficult theoretical and technical questions. We have, however, made certain assumptions that should be reported.

We have assumed that the criteria for success in educational broadcasting will not be the simple quantitative criteria of commercial broadcasting. This is not to say that the size of an audience is of no consequence, for obviously it would be unreasonable to continue broadcasting a program that had but half a dozen viewers. On the other hand, we should not make the assumption that all the families who own television sets within range of our station are the potential audience for a given program. The potential audience for a program is defined by such factors as the interests to which it is addressed and the level of education presupposed in its content. Such an audience may be a small fraction of the absolute potential audience. Even within such restricted limits, it might not be wise to use a simple quantitative standard. One would have to ask: Who are the audience and what are their characteristics? What does the program mean to them? Are its purposes being realized? Is the audience growing or declining in size, changing in composition in the desired direction, developing in understanding, or failing to keep pace with the program?

It is assumed that educational broadcasting, like education itself and like the University's own research and scholarship, is an activity with long-range time perspective. If we enter educational broadcasting, our intent should be to make it a permanent feature of the University's work.

The Committee suspects that the "how" of educational television is something that is being learned and will have to be learned by experiment. We do not believe that we can predict

the form of those experiments, or their success, or even the criteria that would be useful in describing their success or failure. The fact is that for almost every theory of the way in which television establishes (or fails to establish) a relation between producers, productions, and viewers, there is another theory that questions or seriously qualifies it. We must do the best we can to put them to the test of practical experience.

SOME POSSIBLE PROGRAMS

The Committee realizes very well that it encounters certain dangers when it suggests ideas for specific programs. Only practical experience can determine whether a given idea will work. Time, ingenuity, professional competence, and a certain amount of trial and error are all required to perfect a program. But the possibilities and the power of television can be made completely real only if one considers, in fairly concrete terms, some of the programs which can be presented. The Committee therefore presents in random order, and without categorization, certain seeds of program ideas which some day under favorable conditions may germinate.

"Invitation to the University": We now bring to the University thousands of people each year to see one or another of our buildings or physical resources. By television we could bring hundreds of thousands, and we could give each a more direct, immediate, and intimate view. In a series of sessions we could show and explain the cyclotron, the Oriental Institute, the geological museum, the collection of maps, the Rare Book Room, and our other showpieces. We could also take the camera into laboratories, clinics, and other places to which we cannot now admit visitors in person. The program would attempt not merely to show things off but also to have the audience understand how these things contribute to culture and to our society. Above all else, the program should not be designed for public relations but rather to build understanding of what a university really is, what it does, and what kinds of freedom it should have.

"How the University Sees the City": The people themselves see the city as an enormous entity, in some part of which each of them has a place and with which each is familiar. They do not look at the city objectively as the social scientist does. The program might use an infinitely varied theme, with one session or more devoted to such topics as these: the clustering and gradual diffusion of nationality and ethnic groups; the patterns of migration of the people; how slums are created; the variable pattern of overcrowding; the various sociological phenomena of crime, delinquency, homeless men, and poverty; the solutions offered by recreation, education, and specialized courts; the governmental difficulties presented by enormous size; the effect of large size on the pattern and efficiency of government; and the economic difficulties and opportunities presented to the individual who lives in the city. Each session should be built around a person who is an expert on a topic of city life, and each expert should use charts, diagrams, still pictures, and documentary films. Actual films could be made and shown as they illustrate the topic dealt with.

"The People Shall Judge": It is suggested here that a member of the College social-sciences staff lead a series of discussions of basic American documents. His students should include both students in the College and their parents. The values which might be derived are these: a better understanding of the works discussed; a greater appreciation of content-centered discussion as a method of

teaching; a better understanding of what constitutes good teaching; and, most important of all, the idea that parents and young people can maintain common bonds through reading and talking together.

"The Major Occupations": This program would be so organized that each week there would be a consideration of one of the occupations in which men and women earn their living. A common core of information—length and kind of preparation, financial and other rewards, main pathways for advancement, and so on—would be included, but each program might take a distinctive form in terms of the occupation considered. There would be a moderator to give continuity; and he would use charts, motion pictures, interviews, and panel discussions as they were appropriate. The program would be designed basically for high-school students and their parents, but it might also have a wide general appeal.

"The Scenes of European History": The European child is brought up in the midst of history and feels it all around him. Americans have many allusions to place names which remain completely unreal to them. Each session of this program would be built around some famous place as it is today. At the start, a historian would give a brief talk, setting forth the historical significance of the scene to be shown and perhaps using pictures or diagrams to illustrate his talk. The scene would then be shown in film as it exists today. Some illustrations might be Hastings, Waterloo, the forest of Compiègne, Versailles, Kronberg Castle, and the Tower of London. If films suitable for the purpose do not exist, they could be commissioned from the television authorities of the foreign countries concerned, since the educational stations of this country will doubtless have close affiliations with them.

"Ballads and Their Backgrounds": The ballad is a piece of folk art, its origins obscure but its appeal universal. Each session might be built around one or two ballads which would be sung, perhaps with variant versions. Some history of the ballad would be given, with an indication of where it originated and how it has spread. The audience might be invited to send in different versions, with some indication of where they were heard. The cosmopolitan population of Chicago might thereby be encouraged to aid in this kind of research.

"The Weather": This program would use current atmospheric conditions not merely for purposes of discussion and prediction but as an illustration of the basic science of meteorology. The instruments used, the way in which data are collected, the classification of various kinds of weather phenomena (clouds, for example), and the presentation of the broad air-mass theory might greatly aid in building an understanding of weather as a scientific phenomenon. If anyone wished, the program might be used as a vehicle of contact with amateur meteorologists who would collaborate in collecting data in much the same way as the Harvard Observatory now uses amateur astronomers.

"The University Interprets the News": This would be a panel program, with one or two constant members and several who would be used on occasion. The main topics of news in the week concerned would be selected, the moderator being careful to include items of long-range as well as immediate significance. Each topic would first be presented factually and then discussed by the panel, the effort being made to get at what lies behind the facts and to interpret what their consequences might be.

"The Government of the City": Chicagoland is governed by an enormously complex, unco-ordinated, and heterogeneous group of governments. This program would attempt to make this fact graphically clear to the people. Each session would present some department or aspect of government, with some thoroughly qualified expert serving as commentator. If possible, we might televise a meeting of the city council or the school board or edit film made at such sessions. We would visit each of the departments of the

city, trying to find out what is done by each. We could go out into the ward organization and present, either with comment or with significant silence, some of the things we see. It would also be worth while to present some of the most outstanding proposals for reform, such as home rule and charter revision.

"Distinguished Visitors": This program would put on television, for everyone to see, some of the large number of outstanding persons who come to the University each year. It should not be a periodic program, lest we be tempted thereby to lower our standards of who is distinguished.

"The Human Adventure": For several years the University maintained a radio program by this name, broadcasting it over a nation-wide network. It is essentially the story of discovery and of research, each session being built about some line of inquiry or, more usually, the work of an individual. The radio scripts remain, and they could be readily converted into scripts for television.

"Work in Progress": This program would deal not with completed research but with that which is now going on. Men and women on our campus who are undertaking significant investigations that can be explained to the public would be asked to tell what it is that they are trying to do, demonstrating the equipment they use and the way in which they think about the problems they are trying to solve. The program might have a "roundup" every now and then to ask the investigators to tell how their work is progressing. This program has obvious values in explaining the several disciplines and methods of research, in indicating the nature of scientific inquiry, in illustrating the importance of research in our society, and, possibly, in securing financial support.

"Contemporary Cultures": Most people have little understanding of the habits and ways of life of other countries and other people. This series would use film, drawing from that which is generally available, that which has been taken by anthropologists to record folk customs and rituals, and that which may be available from private sources. The purpose would simply be to give some understanding of how other people live. A basic structure of topics might be developed, so that every program was sure to touch on each. In some cases, people from the cultures concerned—for example, students at International House—might be drawn in for commentary or interview.

"Our Social Agencies": This program would be devoted to the presentation of the goals and programs of the various social and welfare organizations of the city: the hospitals, settlement houses, child-care programs, summer camps, and other agencies. Each session of the program should be devoted to one such agency, which may be treated as unique or as typifying the general class of institutions to which it belongs. The program should be broadcast from the agency itself, or, if that proves not to be feasible, a film should be made of the setting. The program might include an interview with the administrative head of the agency and should include, if at all possible, some pictorial representation of the basic services which are performed.

"The Expert Answers": This program would be built around the three resources of an instructional film, an expert in the subject matter concerned, and a small panel of people. A moderator would briefly introduce both the subject and the expert. There would then be shown an instructional film, the expert would make brief comments about it, and the panel would then direct questions to the expert. The range of subjects which are now available on film is enormous, and the topics dealt with could be drawn from all parts of the University.

"Resources for Learning": The idea of this program would be to show the adults the places to which they can go to study and learn. It would include visits to university extension centers, libraries, museums, settlement houses, park-district field houses, evening schools, and industrial and union programs. Although the chief purpose is to build

a wider knowledge of available resources, a secondary purpose would be to reinforce the general idea that adults should keep on learning. It would be hoped that this idea would get across to young people so that they do not leave formal schooling with the belief that they are able now to put learning behind them.

"How a Neighborhood Can Take Action": In and around Chicago there are a number of community movements in which the citizens of a particular area are involved. The best illustration is the South East Chicago Commission, but there are many other less extensive efforts, started and fostered by citizens' associations, settlement houses, and schools. Each session of this program should be devoted to some such effort, interviewing the people concerned, finding out what they have learned, making some estimate of accomplishment and what remains to be done, and drawing any general lessons for other communities. Emphasis should be placed on direct action (that is, what the people can do for themselves), rather than on the building-up of pressure groups for action by legislative groups or administrative officials.

"The News in Sciences, the Arts, Business, Education": This program would be broadcast weekly, but each subject would be dealt with once a month. The emphasis would be on giving coverage generally to topics which are not given adequate display in newspapers and news broadcasts. The show would have a continuing moderator for each topic, and he would have the chief task of presenting content. He would heighten interest where he could by bringing in other persons to serve on a panel or to be interviewed, and he would introduce pictures, charts, and other materials as they are appropriate.

"How Children Learn To Read": This program would be designed for parents, for adults who are interested in their own reading abilities, and for teachers who want a refresher course dealing with newer techniques. By actual demonstration with children, such topics as the following would be dealt with: the determination of reading readiness, learning to recognize words, the introduction of phonics, developing concepts for reading unfamiliar material, the use of the dictionary and other sources, and reading for a specific purpose.

"Learning To Read Better": This program would be designed directly for adults and would approach the idea of reading from a number of angles. Some of the topics would be the diagnosis of poor reading, the improvement of reading rate, the building of vocabulary, and logical or analytical methods for getting meaning from the printed page. It is possible that a direct remedial course might be given on television, but one would need to approach such a course with a great caution in order not to promise too much and in order to permit of proper treatment of individual differentiation.

"What Can I Do?": Each session would deal with the ways in which the citizen can take independent action about pervasive social problems, such as: "How do I behave when a friend makes remarks which indicate race prejudice?" "What do I do when I hear a rumor that the house next door has been sold to Negroes?" "What do I do when my son is beaten up by a gang on the way home from school?" This program would need a continuing moderator. For each problem a panel, composed of both professors and lay citizens, would be chosen. The panel would be encouraged on occasion to place itself in the situation and act out some of the answers.

"How Chicago Is Fed": This program would illustrate the operation of basic principles of economics through taking one large area of human activity and examining it thoroughly. Through focusing on this one central topic, there could be given a realistic picture of the intricate systems of production, transportation, and financing of food. The medium used would probably be commentary aided by extensive use of films or live broadcasts. While major attention would

be centered on the more immediate and specific handling of foods, the series should certainly include a consideration of the work of the Board of Trade and the Stock Exchange.

"Toward a More Perfect Democracy": Various kinds of social reform are now being proposed by responsible groups in our society. They have to do with city planning, housing, government reform, improved health and sanitation, planned parenthood, crime prevention, and the like. In each session, some faculty member who has studied the proposed reform and supports it should present its basic ideas, using straight exposition, interviewing, discussion, visual aids, and conducted tours as these best suit his purpose.

"Ways of Life within the City": Various national and ethnic groups in Chicago live in distinctive community patterns, to some extent submerged within the city and to some extent distinct from it. Usually each group lives in its own neighborhood and imposes its pattern upon the area. This program would be devoted to a series of explorations, each session being given over to one group. The medium used might be direct broadcasting from the neighborhood involved, but films combined with commentary might provide a more flexible and interesting pattern.

"Sunday Service": This program would be a telecast of the weekly religious service from Rockefeller Chapel, perhaps varied on occasion with broadcasts from one of our other chapels in the University and in its neighborhood. This program would have its own direct religious significance, but also it would serve to remind the city constantly of one of the important aspects of the life of the University.

"Aging Successfully": This program would be the vehicle for communicating the research findings of the various studies now being done on the Quadrangles concerning the problems of the aged. It could take many forms. Initially it might present, in a series of sessions, certain basic concepts of how life may be made more satisfying for the aged. It might indicate the work being done by various social, recreational, and educational agencies to offer assistance to such people. It might even offer certain case studies of successful adjustment, if such studies could be done with dignity and taste. Finally, it might offer suggestions for fruitful personal activity on the part of the aged. If desired, the program might also be the vehicle for securing information to be used in research efforts.

"Visits to Places of Religious Interest": Chicago has churches of many denominations. This program would, at each session, visit a particular church (either directly or by film), show anything which is distinctive about its religious symbols and orientations, and provide an opportunity for the minister of the church to explain the set of beliefs and doctrines which he professes. The program should have a continuing moderator who is familiar with comparative religion; and, in interviewing the minister, he should be careful to bring out the particular applications of certain general themes which would run throughout the series.

"An Introduction to Chamber Music": The small size of the television screen makes it particularly suitable for activities in which only a few people are concerned. At the same time, some kind of diversity is desirable. These considerations would seem to indicate that chamber music would be initially the most desirable form of instrumental music to present. The program would be composed of both explanation and performance. Initially the presentation should be extremely simple, emphasis being laid on such topics as the basic musical themes, the structure of the composition, and the ways in which the instruments interact. To avoid atomization, each program should present one piece which is played through from beginning to end without interruption.

"Tomorrow's Home": This program would be designed for those who are planning to build a home or who might wish to build one some day. It would also be of inter-

est to these who are generally interested in the problems of housing and architecture. It should take up such questions as the location of the house on the lot, selecting an architect, determining the optimum size of the house, planning the interior, and introducing provisions for flexibility. The basic medium used would be the lecture with profuse illustrations, including an occasional use of film.

"The World of Maps": This program would present a straightforward explanation of maps and map-making. The basic problems, and the solutions advanced, would be explained. The method used would be an informal lecture, with very heavy use of the University's map collection.

"Approaches to Peace": Many different disciplines and professions are concerned with the need for peace. This program would present a series of illustrated talks, showing how each profession thinks it is attacking the problems. Among those involved would be the diplomat, the educator, the scientist, the public health official, the political scientist, the economist, the theologian, and the humanist. The University should draw both from its own faculty and from outside to locate the persons who are to speak; and, if possible, men of great prestige and experience should be used. Perhaps this program might be put on film for wide circulation to other stations.

"Preparation for the Symphony": Every Sunday afternoon during the winter the Columbia Broadcasting System presents the New York Philharmonic Symphony. This program would, in effect, get people ready to hear the program. Based on the list of works to be performed, the lecture would present suitable background material, using the piano to sketch themes and the blackboard to indicate the structure of the compositions. If desirable, some information about the composer could be presented.

"The Elements of Beauty": This program would focus directly on objects of beauty, each session being given over completely to one object or a small group of them. The lecturer (or perhaps a panel) would try to express in words the essence of the beauty of the objects, perhaps presenting for contrast other articles in which this beauty is not displayed. The whole emphasis would be on concentration on the work of art itself and the insights which may be derived from the examination of it.

"Theatrical Dancing": The program would combine lecture, illustration, and performance. The kinds of dancing presented could range from highly formalized classical ballet to very simple folk dances, and the goal should be both analysis and appreciation. Any actual performances should be of a highly professional sort; there are many films now available which could be used for this purpose.

"Architecture in Chicago": Chicago has been the place from which much modern architecture has sprung, and the city also contains examples of many forms and types. This program would explore the interesting ideas which were first developed here, with the television camera visiting, either directly or on film, some of the famous buildings and examining their distinctive features. The goal should be not to glorify Chicago but to create understanding of the nature of architecture and of the goals which outstanding architects have sought and are seeking.

"How a Television Station Operates": This program would simply turn the camera on the station itself and indicate both the technical processes which are used and the ways in which ideas get translated into action. It would be designed to satisfy the curiosity of the viewers and, perhaps, to make them understand and support the station.

"Honorary Degree": On those rare occasions on which the University awards an honorary degree, it might well devote a program to the work and the unique distinction of the recipient. The purpose of this program would be to provide a kind of case study of the values which lead to outstanding eminence in the academic world.

"What's in Your Attic": This program, which would be built around the collection of historical documents and objects, would be intended to stimulate people to collect materials of importance for the history of localities, areas, and periods of development of the Chicago area and the Middle West.

"On Stage": This program would deal with the lore of the theater. Visits would be made directly or by film to various kinds of theaters including the Elizabethan. Attention would be given to the procedures and paraphernalia of theatrical production, with biographies of famous playwrights and actors, permitting the use of visual materials, including handbills.

"The Diaglogues of Plato": Two members of the faculty have already begun to develop a possible program on Plato that involves the dramatization of certain dialogues or portions of dialogues.

"The Geography of the Chicago Area": As its name indicates, this program would explore and describe the basic geographic attributes and their interesting variations which are to be found in the city and its vicinity.

"The Art Studio": A representation of the development of works of art by the various processes, including painting, ceramics, and sculpture. Every step of the process of the creation of a real work of art would be illustrated.

"The Craft Studio": This program would be very like the foregoing except that it would deal more particularly with weaving, woodworking, pottery, and the other handicrafts.

"The Amateur Photographer": Analysis and criticism of photographs, either "stills" or motion pictures, submitted by members of the television audience. Special information for this program might be derived from the Humanities Department as well as from the Physics and Chemistry departments.

"Pure and Applied Science, or Science and Technology": This program would attempt to show the relations between the work of the pure scientist interested only in understanding nature and the work of the applied scientist and technologist. This would need to be somewhat historical in nature and could start from views of industrial processes in the Chicago area, tracing back to the original discoveries on which they are based. One such specific example might be "Inside a Steel Mill."

Start with shots showing operation of a modern steel mill producing some material for a special purpose. Show the structure of this steel as determined both by microscopic methods and by X-ray diffraction; and give brief résumés of the development of these means of study, the relation of the structures observed, and the treatment to which the metal is being subjected, as well as the resulting properties which can be visualized either by testing or by actual service demonstration. The Chicago area is very rich in industrial processes of scientific background, and interesting programs could be made by oscillating between large-scale, spectacular industrial operations and work in university and other laboratories showing the science back of it. Through these programs great care should be taken to see that the impression is not left that university science has only a utilitarian value, and every effort must be made to show the aesthetic and primary intellectual appeal of science.

"The Elements": Ninety-eight chemical elements—different species of matter—are known. Even in the Bible about six of these are mentioned, and in 1870 fifty-six were known. By 1925 about eighty-five had been identified. A story of the history of the discovery of the elements can be made not only instructive, but fascinating. Charts, photographs, and movies could be used as supplementary material. A number of interesting stories can be associated with the discovery of the elements. For example, it can be shown that the misinterpretation of the results of a few chemical experiments delayed discovery of several elements for a period of 125 years. This program would be primarily a lecture

supplemented with numerous types of materials for purposes of illustration.

"Paleontology": A possible theme is the origin and development of life. This should be carried out in co-operation with various areas of the University and adjacent museums. It could form the basis of an exceedingly interesting series of programs. A second theme could deal with the origin, accumulation, exploration, and production of petroleum. This would be a co-operative venture in which paleontology would play only one of the principal roles.

"Water Resources of the United States": A dramatic series of programs is possible under this heading. Many films have been made. On-the-spot programs on water-supply problems in Chicago are possible.

"Carbon-14": The discovery of Carbon 14 in all living matter, which when removed from the life-cycle undergoes radioactive decay with a half life of about 5,000 years, makes it possible to determine the age of materials containing carbon, particularly in the age range of 1,000–20,000 years. This discovery is of interest to archeologists and geologists due to the fact that it is possible to determine, with considerable accuracy, the age of specimens containing carbon. A series of programs could be developed showing the technical equipment and procedure for making the measurements, the materials used for the measurements, and the importance and application of the results.

"Geiger Counter Demonstrations": Geiger counters and other types of counting instruments could be illustrated by suitable charts in regard to design, and the counters could be heard and flashing lights could be seen as they respond to the various radioactivities exhibited by a number of different materials. The Geiger counters could also be demonstrated for the detection of lost sources of radioactive substances, for example, radium; for measuring the radioactivity of the atmosphere; and for surveying laboratories and other places where a radioactive hazard might be present.

"High-Energy Accelerator Machines": A program could be developed to demonstrate the principles of operation of high-energy machines, such as the cyclotron, the betatron, the Van de Graaff generator, and the cosmotron. Furthermore, demonstrations could be made of the use of these machines for studying the properties of matter.

"The Chain-reaction Pile": Sufficient information is now available to make it possible to describe in complete detail the small experimental chain-reacting piles, of which several are in use in the country. A series of programs would have as its beginning the first chain-reacting pile at Stagg Field at the University and would terminate in one of the more recent reactors and in predictions for the design of future power reactors. The different uses that could be made of these reactors in physics, chemistry, and particularly in biology and medicine could be demonstrated.

"Composition of the Solar System": An interesting program could be devised, dealing with the composition of matter and the distribution of different types of matter in meteorites, with the objective of presenting the different ideas related to the composition and origin of the solar system. This topic is a general one and could be broken down into many categories, such as the composition of the moon, the surface of the moon, and similar topics.

"The Structure of Matter": A series of programs could be designed on the level of interest to the layman, describing what we believe to be the structure of different species of matter, what are the elementary particles composing matter, how these particles are arranged and associated with each other, and what changes occur when chemical reactions take place. Supplementary materials in the form of charts, movies, and photographs would be needed.

"Everyday Chemistry": Everyone uses every day a large number of different materials which are products of chemistry. One need mention only a few, such as rubber,

nylon, plastics, soap, paint, pharmaceuticals, and gasoline. What are these substances and how are they produced? In other words, what is the story behind each of them? Also the question of hazards in the handling of many chemicals we encounter every day could be emphasized. In this regard, safety-education programs could be developed.

"Human Heredity": We are all curious about how we came to be the way we are—our stature; eye color; hair color, whether it is straight or curly, or why some become bald while others do not. Problems connected with marriage and having children arise because of hereditary factors: hemophilia, Rh factor, feeble-mindedness. All of these and others could be discussed in a series of programs which would have great personal appeal over a long period. Pictures of people and of affected structures and diagrams of family lineage could be used to good effect. In the context of these problems a great deal of fundamental genetics and biology could be taught.

"How the Body Functions": Almost everyone is anxious for more knowledge about how his own body functions. This normal curiosity is heightened whenever there is some malfunction. Satisfaction of this curiosity not only permits more rational and assured planning of personal habits, but in many cases unnecessary concern can be prevented or alleviated. For years the demonstrations in the College courses in physiology have been popular and instructive. Without recourse to animal experimentation involving vivisection, it is possible to demonstrate strikingly the function and role in the body's economy of all of the body's organs.

"Through the Microscope": One of the most successful public demonstrations at world's fairs, science museums, and scientific meetings is the microvivarium. Pond animalcules, bacteria, molds, and other microörganisms are only a part of the microscopic work which can be shown in motion on the television screen. So great is the variety of available cell types and so many are the experiments which can be done with them that this program could run for an almost unlimited time. Furthermore, it should require little rehearsal. Once a satisfactory microscope is set up in conjunction with a television camera, one need only provide live material and a commentator who can help the audience understand and enjoy what is seen. There should be a great element of spontaneity in this program. Also it should be more than a scientific peep show in that discussion of the activities of the cells and their parts should teach a great deal of fundamental physiology.

"Preparation for Parenthood": Children are our most precious resource, yet vast numbers of present and potential parents know virtually nothing in any real sense of the biological and psychological aspects of their prenatal and postnatal development. Our Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology has had extensive experience in counseling prospective mothers and fathers during the period before the birth of their children. At the University and at the Museum of Science and Industry are a wealth of models and materials for demonstrating the embryological development of the child. Our Department of Pediatrics in conjunction with psychiatrists and sociologists could continue the counseling with regard to postnatal development.

"Plants and Their Growth": The topics dealt with on this program could range from such mundane ones as how to grow a lawn or plants in a window box to discussions of the geological history of the area and its influence on the natural flora of the region. Plants lend themselves particularly well to time-lapse photography, so that movies showing plant growth, flowers blooming, and other plant functions can readily be prepared. Telecasts of gardens and forest, besides their aesthetic value, would acquaint the public with places they might wish to visit on outings. Acquaintance with new plant forms, particularly with forms well suited to grow in

this area, should not only be satisfying to the viewer but also might encourage beautifying the city.

"Mathematical Biology": In addition to dealing qualitatively with phenomena in the biological and social sciences, it is possible to describe many systems in more or less precise mathematical terms and to make predictions about them. Such matters as spreading of rumors, the effect of size of group on unanimity of opinion, and related matters hold great public interest.

CONCLUSION

Throughout its discussions the Committee has been sensitive to the dangers of excessive fascination with the novelty of television. Its concern has been with what the University might have to say, not with technical devices. What the University has to say appears, upon examination, to be vital to the continuing health of our society. As for the technical machinery itself, we recommend the judgment of Henry David Thoreau:

> Our inventions are wont to be pretty toys, which distract our attention from serious things. They are but improved means to an unimproved end, an end which it was already but too easy to arrive at; as railroads lead to Boston or New York. We are in great haste to construct a magnetic telegraph from Maine to Texas; but Maine and Texas, it may be, have nothing important to communicate.—*Walden.*

ARE PUPILS LEARNING THE BASIC SKILLS OF ENGLISH?

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*

ENGLISH RANKS as the most important and essential subject in the curriculum of our public schools. The fact that practically all public school systems require pupils to study English for the entire twelve years of their school life evidences real concern on the part of both citizens and teachers about the teaching of English. It is no wonder, then, that myriad speeches, articles, and offhand comments overwhelm the English teacher with ideas regarding his conduct of his job.

CRITICISMS OF TEACHING OF ENGLISH

Many of the statements by both laymen and educators are derogatory, negative, or denunciatory. Note these five quotations:

It is quite common to meet teachers and advanced pupils in our schools who are unable to give the number of letters in the English alphabet, to classify them as vowels and consonants, and much less to vocally illustrate the elementary sounds they represent when standing alone or in combination.[1]

[A report to the North Carolina General Assembly indicated that two-thirds of the teachers of the state] cannot teach English grammar and one-third can scarcely make out a readable return.[2]

[Tests] show beyond all doubt that a large proportion of the scholars in our first classes, boys and girls of fourteen and fifteen years of age, when called upon to write simple sentences, to express their thoughts on common subjects, without the aid of a dictionary or a master, cannot write, without such errors in grammar, in spelling, and in punctuation, as we should blush to see in a letter from a son or daughter of their age. And most of these children are about finishing their school career as they are going out into life; . . . the larger part never to receive any supplementary education; and how, we ask are they to write a letter that they would not be ashamed to exhibit?[3]

At Harvard, as the committee demonstrates, the unhappy instructors are confronted with immature thoughts, set down in a crabbed and slovenly hand, miserably

[1] Cited in Archibald W. Anderson, "Critics, Criticism, and Crisis," *Progressive Education*, XXIX (October, 1951), 16.

[2] Margaret P. Altany, "An Important Milestone for Duke," *Durham Morning Herald*, June 22, 1952, Sec. IV, p. 5.

[3] "Reports of the Annual Visiting Committee of the Public Schools of the City of Boston," cited in O. W. Caldwell and S. A. Courtis, *Then and Now in Education: 1845–1923*, p. 180. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1923.

expressed, and wretchedly spelled, and yet the average age of admission is nineteen.[4]

It is really a rare thing to find young people at from fifteen to nineteen years of age who can write or spell words . . . or prepare a composition correctly.[5]

While those statements closely resemble much you hear of current opinion on the teaching of English, they actually originated in the years 1845, 1851, 1886, and 1894. They expressed the judgments of lay and professional groups regarding the caliber of instruction in English, and its results, during the past century. They constituted the commonly held opinions about English-teaching long before the days of the new psychology, "progressive" education, the activity movement, the project and the unit, and compulsory school attendance laws that have brought a large per cent of American youth into high-school English classes.

EVIDENCES OF EFFECTIVE TEACHING

Aside from the *opinions* of selected persons and groups, what are the *facts* regarding the comparative effectiveness of instruction in high-school English today and yesteryear? Are schools really teaching the fundamentals of English as well today as they did during the past century? Are teachers of English really developing their pupils' abilities to read and write as well as teachers of years ago taught the grandparents or great-grandparents of these same pupils? Let us look at the record. In spite of the difficulties in making comparisons of this type, some facts are available.

Spelling tests originally given to ninth-grade pupils in Springfield, Massachusetts, in 1846, were administered to their more recent counterparts in 1906. The 1906 students spelled an average of 20 per cent more of the words correctly.[6] In 1926 the same spelling tests were given to pupils in other cities. In one of these cities, Minneapolis, seventh- and eighth-grade pupils made significantly higher scores on the spelling tests than even the 1906 ninth-graders.[7] In 1881 in Wilmington, Delaware, 58 per cent of fifth-grade pupils made a score of 70 or higher on a spelling test. In 1951 on the same test 64 per cent of fifth-grade pupils made a score of 70 or higher.[8] At least some of our schools are teaching spelling as well as they did in "the good old days."

A special set of examinations in grammar, defining words, and other subjects was taken by top students in the highest grade (typically the eighth) in each of nineteen schools in Boston during the year 1845. In 1919

[4] Report of the Committee on Composition and Rhetoric, Harvard College, 1894, cited in William H. Burton, "Get the Facts: Both Ours and the Other Fellow's!" *Progressive Education*, XXIX (January, 1952), 90.

[5] *Boston Herald*, 1894, cited in Archibald W. Anderson, *op. cit.*, pp. 15–16.

[6] J. L. Riley, *The Springfield Tests, 1846—1905–1906*. Springfield, Massachusetts: Holden Patent Book Cover Co., 1908.

[7] Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States*, p. 333. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934 (revised).

[8] *New York Times*, January 15, 1952, p. 18.

these same examinations were readministered to all, not merely to a selected few, eighth-graders in Boston and some other cities. The 1919 group scored almost 20 per cent higher than the hand-picked students of 1845.[9] Clearly, the pupils in some modern schools are learning grammar and definitions better than did their forerunners of a century earlier.

It is easy to see why the facts revealed by such studies as these are difficult to ascertain. Locating both the test and the results of its use many years ago constitutes a rare find for even a most thorough research worker. There is little chance of equating a class in 1952 with a group of pupils in 1852 because we simply do not know enough about any particular group of pupils of a century ago.

A number of specific studies have compared pupil achievement during the 1930's or 1940's with that of pupils long ago. No one of these studies has comprehensively evaluated the results of all phases of English instruction then and now, because of the difficulties just mentioned. But the sum of conclusions from more recent, specific studies validates the obvious conclusion of earlier research: schools of today teach spelling, grammar, and reading at least as successfully as they did years ago.[10]

Perhaps the most startling evidence to this effect was revealed by the armed forces' testing of inductees. According to these reports, the reading rate and comprehension of World War II draftees ranked four grade levels higher than those of World War I conscriptees.[11]

Besides these few, but telling, direct indications of the relative merits of past and present instruction in English, so far as achievement in fundamental language skills is concerned, indirect evidence also furnishes some enlightenment. Recent, extensive comparisons of modern and traditional methods of teaching English show consistently that pupils gain as effective a grasp of fundamentals when more recently developed methods of teaching are used. The famed Eight-Year Study and the summaries of research compiled by Wrightstone permit no escape from that conclusion.[12]

Such evidences as have been cited may be viewed impersonally by the teacher. Their presentation here derives from no particular point of view

[9] O. W. Caldwell and S. A. Courtis, *op. cit.*, p. 85.

[10] *a*) Archibald W. Anderson, "The Charges against American Education: What Is the Evidence?" *Progressive Education*, XXIX (January, 1952), 91–105.

b) Lowry W. Harding, "How Well Are Schools Now Teaching the Basic Skills?" *Progressive Education*, XXIX (October, 1951), 7–14.

[11] "The Three R's, We Teach Them Better Than We Used To," in "Our American Schools," *Senior Scholastic*, LIX (November 7, 1951), 11.

[12] *a*) Dean Chamberlin, Enid Chamberlin, Neal E. Drought, and William E. Scott, *Did They Succeed in College?* Adventure in American Education, Vol. IV. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942.

b) J. Wayne Wrightstone, "Growth in Basic Skills," in J. P. Leonard and A. C. Eurich, *An Evaluation of Modern Education*, pp. 151–81. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1942.

c) Lowry W. Harding, *op. cit.*

toward, and certainly no vested interest in, the teaching of English. The teacher of English may regard such data with the same impersonal air that he attaches to a reported rise of five points in the cost-of-living index, an outside temperature reading of 102 degrees, or the historian's report that Hitler led Germany down the road of naziism. Even amid the confusions of the contemporary world, there are some conclusions that are inescapable.

It is reasonable to conclude that teachers of English today are doing a satisfactory job of teaching the fundamentals of English if the performance of the past furnishes an adequate standard. The continual hue and cry, from within and without the profession, "to return to teaching the fundamentals," has become the sheerest nonsense. For any teacher to permit himself to believe that schools are doing less well than formerly in teaching fundamentals is utter self-deception. To permit the public to believe so is erroneous, fraudulent, and costly. The myth of a golden age, when public school level pupils learned the traditionally basic skills of English better than present-day pupils, should now be relegated to the burial ground of other myths.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE MODERN TEACHER

Fortunately the standards of the past do not limit the modern teacher of English. His selection of objectives appropriate for English courses goes far beyond the teaching of two of the three R's—reading and 'riting. While the modern teacher of English gives much attention to improving the teaching of reading and writing, he has come to recognize other communication skills needed by the pupils. These skills include discussion techniques, skills of critical listening, and understanding of the modern functioning of language.[13]

Oral expression.—Modern teachers of English are giving increasing attention to the development by their pupils of abilities in oral expression. The teacher recognizes that pupils need to learn how to express themselves orally in a variety of situations, formal and informal. Such training includes public speaking before small and large groups. The modern teacher performs the functions of a speech teacher in the average high school, since resources do not often permit employment of a specialist in speech. Training in oral expression also encompasses conversational skills. Even high-school youth may, for example, profit from attention to their manner of speaking on the telephone. The teacher gives pupils experience in interviewing with adults; in taking part in discussions with classmates; in engaging in debates, forums, and panel discussions. If the art of conversation becomes lost in our day, it will

[13] For details concerning new developments and trends in the teaching of English, see *The English Language Arts*. Prepared by the Commission on the English Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English. New York: Appleton-Century-Croft, Inc., 1952.

not be due to the lack of efforts by modern teachers of English.

Listening skills.—Today the alert teacher of English trains pupils in their ability to listen critically and to learn by listening. Such training is based on recognition of the role of the individual in present-day communication. Time studies show clearly that more than half of the typical person's time spent in communication activities is given to listening—usually a passive, but potentially an active, process. Today's high-school students need to learn how to listen critically to carefully chosen radio and television programs and movies, to public speeches, to conversation with their elders, and, not the least important, to their teachers. This training calls not only for extended attention to developing criteria for proper selection of programs and performances but also for thorough study of propaganda techniques, for recognition of clichés in both political and commercial advertising, and for discovery of straight thinking in the floods of emotionally charged word symbols that inundate us.

Experiences in creative expression.—The modern teacher of English does not neglect his opportunity to provide for the pupils some creative experiences in dramatic expression. Formerly high-school plays were cast with the most popular pupils in the school. The teacher of today sees to it that all pupils have opportunity to share in dramatic productions. Further creative opportunities are offered through debate, choral speaking, public speaking, work on the school newspaper, and creative writing. While these activities used to be considered extracurricular, present-day teachers of English are bringing them more and more into the classroom so that all pupils may participate under competent supervision.

Using reading materials effectively.—The teacher recognizes, furthermore, the need for training pupils in specific skills required to read understandably a variety of printed materials. In the modern high-school class in English, the daily newspaper, as well as Shakespeare, has a place; contemporary magazines and books, along with the literary anthology that constitutes the textbook, comprise reading materials for the class; pupils use pamphlets and reference books, as well as workbooks, in performing assignments. The student becomes acquainted with a variety of printed materials and develops skill in locating them, in obtaining facts and ideas from them, and in organizing this newly acquired information into usable form. Some courageous teachers of English have even dared to "help" pupils with those parts of their assignments in other subjects that involve skills in language usage. In a few schools some correlation or integration of English with another subject has been arranged in advance, such as the combining of English with American history.

Understanding the functioning of language.—The modern teacher of

English recognizes his responsibility for building in students an understanding of the modern functioning of language. He helps pupils to identify the sources of public information and the impact of recent developments in communication on our way of life. The modern English teacher does not leave it entirely to the social-studies teacher to bring the students to an understanding of the social importance and functioning of mass media of communication, as well as their personal uses. Through a simplified study of semantic principles, pupils may learn to analyze and interpret more accurately the massive confusion of reports that they read and hear about life in our world. They may learn how to reason more logically, how to think straighter with the symbols they are accustomed to using—their native language.

SUMMARIZING COMMENTS

This paper has emphasized five chief points:

1. The modern teacher of high-school English is doing at least as good a job as did his counterpart of years ago in teaching the fundamentals of English: grammar, spelling, and skill in reading. The critics who continue to weep, wail, groan, and gnash their teeth, to decry and bemoan the passing of outmoded and insufficient materials and methods of teaching, should prepare to drown their sorrows in their own tears.

2. The teacher teaches his pupils how to listen critically to, and how to learn meaningfully from, mass-communication media as well as from persons with whom the pupils have face-to-face contacts.

3. The modern teacher of high-school English provides opportunities for pupils to develop better habits and skills of speech both for everyday usage and for participation in public or staged performances.

4. He aids pupils in learning how to read with greater understanding a variety of the many kinds of printed materials that they use in out-of-school and adult life.

5. He helps students become acquainted with the operation and the social effects of mass-communication media and with other basic aspects of our modern system of lingual communication.

These modern responsibilities represent, to this writer, the outstanding accomplishments of teachers of high-school English and give some indication of probable future developments in the English curriculum. Present-day teachers of English in high schools have undertaken far more ambitious programs of instruction than their counterparts of yesteryear. Only the most reactionary would seriously dispute the desirability of attaining the objectives of these programs. The progress of the teachers in developing such well-rounded and useful programs of English and their ambitious outlook for further improvement of these programs warrant the highest commendation.

MIDCENTURY ENROLMENTS IN HIGH-SCHOOL FOREIGN LANGUAGES

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*

How does your state compare with others in per cent of public high school students enrolled in the foreign languages? The answer, given separately for French, German, Italian, Latin, Spanish, and general language, as well as for all languages combined, is contained in the following tabulations and summary. All data have been computed from information supplied in the statistical report, "Offerings and Enrolments in High-School Subjects," of the Federal Office of Education.[1]

Table 1 shows the enrolments in the four languages most frequently taught. It will be noted that Massachusetts ranks first in per cent of high-school pupils enrolled in French. Georgia and Louisiana come closest to the national average of 4.7 per cent, while South Dakota and Texas tie for bottom rank. Since 1933, enrolments in high-school French have declined from 10.9 per cent to 4.7 per cent, or from second to third place among the "big four" languages in the United States.[2]

Since 1933, the per cent of pupils enrolled in German has dropped from a national average of 2.4 to 0.8—the greatest relative loss suffered by any of the "big four" languages in the last two decades. Fifteen states reported no enrolments in German in 1948–49 in public high schools: Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, Montana, New Mexico, North Carolina, South Carolina, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wyoming. It is apparent that German is strongest in the public high schools of New Jersey and weakest in Arizona, Montana, New Mexico, and the southern states. The state of Washington stands at the national average of 0.8 per cent.

Among the states, Delaware ranks highest in per cent of students taking Latin, and Utah ranks lowest, with Florida most closely approximating the national average of 7.8 per cent.

[1] *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1948–1950:* Chapter 5, "Offerings and Enrolments in High-School Subjects, 1948–49," pp. 16, 60, 61, 91, 103. Washington: Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1951.

[2] Mabel C. Rice, "National Summary of Offerings and Enrolments in High-School Subjects, 1948–49." Statistical Circular No. 294. Washington: Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, May, 1951.

TABLE 1

PER CENT OF STUDENTS IN GRADES IX–XII WHO WERE ENROLLED IN THE FOUR MOST FREQUENTLY TAUGHT FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND IN ALL FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN 1948–49 IN 48 STATES AND DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA AND RANK OF EACH STATE

State	French		German		Latin		Spanish		All Foreign Languages	
	Per Cent	Rank	Per Cent	Rank	Per Cent	Rank	Per Cent	Rank	Per Cent	Rank
Alabama	1.7	27	.....	.....	3.3	45	3.1	39	8.1	46
Arizona	.7	39	.....	.....	4.6	38	24.9	2	30.2	12.5
Arkansas	.7	39	.....	.....	2.8	47	2.0	47	5.5	49
California	2.9	20.5	.6	15	5.4	33	19.3	4	28.2	16
Colorado	1.9	24	.4	21	8.1	19	15.2	6	25.6	18
Connecticut	11.8	8	1.5	7.5	16.1	3	7.8	18	37.2	6
Delaware	8.6	10	.4	21	17.2	1	8.2	15	34.4	7
District of Columbia	11.9	7	2.0	3.5	14.8	5	15.1	7	43.8	4
Florida	1.2	32	.....	.....	7.7	20	12.8	9.5	21.7	22
Georgia	4.0	17	.....	.....	4.7	36.5	4.8	29	13.5	32
Idaho	.7	39	.1	29.5	5.7	29.5	7.6	19.5	14.1	31
Illinois	2.6	22	1.4	9.5	8.3	16.5	10.9	12	23.2	19
Indiana	1.5	28	.3	24	11.5	12	5.0	27	18.3	23
Iowa	.7	39	.2	26.5	5.5	31.5	3.0	41.5	9.4	42
Kansas	.5	45.5	.1	29.5	5.7	29.5	5.0	27	11.3	36.5
Kentucky	1.9	24	.1	29.5	6.6	22.5	3.1	39	11.7	35
Louisiana	5.3	16	.....	.....	3.1	46	6.6	21.5	15.0	28
Massachusetts	20.1	1	1.4	9.5	15.8	4	8.1	16	45.4	1
Maryland	8.0	13	1.5	7.5	11.8	10	8.9	13	30.2	12.5
Maine	16.8	3	.2	26.5	11.7	11	2.2	46	30.9	10
Michigan	2.9	20.5	.4	21	9.3	14	5.0	27	17.6	26
Minnesota	.6	43	1.0	11.5	3.7	42.5	2.9	43	8.2	45
Mississippi	1.3	30	.....	.....	4.7	36.5	2.4	45	8.4	44
Missouri	1.1	33	.3	24	3.8	41	4.5	31	9.7	41
Montana	.6	43	.....	.....	7.0	21	6.6	21.5	14.2	30
Nebraska	.9	36	.4	21	6.4	25	3.6	35	11.3	36.5
Nevada	3.0	18.5	.5	17	5.1	34	23.3	3	31.9	9
New Hampshire	15.5	4	.7	14	10.3	13	3.1	39	29.6	14
New Jersey	8.3	12	2.6	1	12.3	8	14.3	8	37.5	5
New Mexico	.5	45.5	.....	.....	3.5	44	29.8	1	33.8	8
New York	11.4	9	2.0	3.5	8.2	18	12.8	9.5	44.4	2.5
North Carolina	13.4	6	.....	.....	5.5	31.5	3.3	37	22.2	20
North Dakota	.6	43	.1	29.5	3.9	40	1.4	48	6.0	48
Ohio	3.0	18.5	1.0	11.5	11.9	9	5.9	24	21.8	21
Oklahoma	.4	47	*	33	3.7	42.5	6.1	23	10.2	39
Oregon	1.0	34.5	.3	24	4.0	39	4.6	30	9.9	40
Pennsylvania	6.0	14	1.7	5	13.3	7	7.6	19.5	28.6	15
Rhode Island	17.1	2	2.3	2	16.7	2	8.3	14	44.4	2.5
South Carolina	8.4	11	.....	.....	6.6	22.5	3.0	41.5	18.0	24
South Dakota	.2	48.5	.5	17	5.0	35	3.4	36	9.1	43
Tennessee	1.3	30	*	33	6.3	26.5	5.7	25	13.3	33
Texas	.2	48.5	*	33	2.7	48	11.5	11	14.4	29
Utah	1.3	30	.5	17	1.6	49	3.9	33	7.3	47
Vermont	14.8	5	.....	.....	14.7	6	1.1	49	30.6	11
Virginia	5.4	15	.....	.....	8.3	16.5	4.1	32	17.8	25
Washington	2.0	23	.8	13	6.3	26.5	7.9	17	17.0	27
Wisconsin	1.0	34.5	1.6	6	6.5	24	3.7	34	12.8	34
West Virginia	1.9	24	.....	.....	6.1	28	2.6	44	10.6	38
Wyoming	0.7	39	.....	.....	9.1	15	16.0	5	25.8	17
United States										
Number	255,375		43,025		422,304		443,995		1,164,699	
Per Cent	4.7		0.8		7.8		8.2		21.5	

* Less than 0.05 per cent, or fewer than one pupil in 2,000.

For the first time in the history of American education, Latin has dropped from first to second place among the "big four" languages commonly taught in public high schools. Percentagewise, enrolments in Latin are somewhat less than half of what they were in 1933–34. The relative loss in enrolment parallels that for French but is considerably less than the loss for German. Latin is still the most popular language in the junior-senior high schools and in the junior high schools, but it takes second place to Spanish in the regular and senior high schools. It is in the latter that the largest number of foreign-language students are to be found.

New Mexico ranks highest in the per cent of public high school students enrolled in Spanish, while Delaware typifies the national average of 8.2 per cent. In Vermont, the lowest ranking state, only one student in a hundred takes Spanish. Since 1933 Spanish has climbed to first place among the languages taught in public high schools. The gain is reflected in an increase of 2 in per cents—from 6.2 to 8.2 per cent during the last two decades. The heavy losses experienced by the other languages, however, do not represent a widespread shift of students to Spanish. If Spanish had absorbed all the losses noted for French, German, and Latin, the per cent of enrolment would have increased not by 2, but by 16.

The highest-ranking state in per cent of pupils enrolled in public high school foreign language is Massachusetts, with Rhode Island and New York vying for second place. Percentagewise, each of these states enrols over eight times as large a proportion of high-school students as the lowest-ranking state, Arkansas. Of all the states, Florida most closely approximates the national average of 21.5 per cent. With few exceptions, the languages are strongest in the eastern states and relatively weak in the southern states. Since 1933, when the foreign languages enrolled 35.5 per cent of public high school pupils, there has been a decrease of 14 percentage points, or an average net loss of approximately 1 percentage point per year.

In Table 2 are given data on the enrolments of students in Italian and in general language. Italian is strongest in New York state. In the case of Missouri, the size of the enrolment seems to indicate that the language is limited to one or two classes in a single school.

General language, as an introductory or exploratory-guidance course, was reported as being offered in twenty states. The size of enrolments, however, indicates that the offering is often limited to one city or school in a state and, at times, apparently to one relatively small class. Pennsylvania, New York, Massachusetts, Michigan, and New Jersey are the leading "general-language" states, each with an enrolment of well over a thousand students.

The languages taught in fewer than six states are shown in Table 3. The

enrolments range from 3,270 for Hebrew to 14 for Russian.

SUMMARY

1. Since 1933, when the foreign languages enrolled 35.5 per cent of the pupils attending public secondary day schools, the per cent of enrolment in the foreign languages has decreased to 21.5 per cent. This represents a decrease of 14 percentage points, or a net loss of approximately one percentage point per year. Because of the increase in the number of pupils now attending secondary schools, this loss is not so obvious as it would be if the high-school population were static. If the same per cent of high-school students were enrolled in the foreign languages today as in 1933, however, the number of teachers and pupils would be almost twice as great as it is at present.

TABLE 2

NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN GRADES VII–XII WHO WERE ENROLLED IN ITALIAN AND IN GENERAL LANGUAGE IN 1948–49 AND RANK OF EACH STATE

State	Italian		General Language	
	Number	Rank	Number	Rank
Arkansas	.....	.....	20	19
California	119	8	787	6
Connecticut	1,106	4	393	9
Florida	.....	.....	52	18
Georgia	.....	.....	54	17
Illinois	955	6	366	10
Indiana	.....	.....	58	16
Iowa	.....	.....	95	14
Kansas	.....	.....	10	20
Massachusetts	1,431	3	1,258	3
Michigan	.....	.....	1,240	4
Minnesota	.....	.....	104	13
Missouri	32	9	.....	.....
New Jersey	2,612	2	1,238	5
New York	8,231	1	1,928	2
Ohio	.....	.....	642	7
Pennsylvania	1,040	5	3,705	1
Rhode Island	739	7	246	11
Texas	.....	.....	525	8
Virginia	.....	.....	239	12
Washington	.....	.....	60	15
United States	16,265	.....	13,020	.....

2. French and Latin enrol less than half as large a per cent of students as they did in 1933. German has been the heaviest loser. The per cent of enrolment here is only a third of what it was in the early thirties. Spanish has shown a net gain in per cents of 2 and is today the most popular of the foreign languages taught in public secondary day schools. Spanish, however, has not absorbed the losses sustained by French, German, or Latin. If all students who formerly enrolled in these languages had transferred to Spanish, the per cent of gain in Spanish would be eight times as great as it actually is.

TABLE 3

ENROLMENTS IN LANGUAGES TAUGHT IN FEWER THAN SIX STATES

Language	Enrolment	States in Which Taught
Bohemian	54	(1) Illinois
Greek	543	(5) Ill., Ind., Pa., Mass., R.I.
Hebrew	3,270	(1) New York
Norse	172	(2) Minn., Wash.
Polish	1,056	(5) Ill., Mass., N.J., Ohio, Wis.
Portuguese	320	(3) Calif., Mass., R.I.
Russian	14	(1) Washington
Swedish	310	(4) Ill., Mass., Minn., N.Y.
Total	5,739	

3. At midcentury, Spanish enrolled 443,995 secondary-school pupils, or 8.2 per cent of the number of young people attending public secondary day schools. The comparable figures for French are 255,375 pupils, or 4.7 per cent; for German, 43,025 pupils, or 0.8 per cent; and for Latin, 422,304 pupils, or 7.8 per cent. Italian enrolled 16,265 students in nine states.

4. At midcentury, twenty states reported offerings in general language, with a total enrolment of 13,020 pupils. Pennsylvania, New York, Massachusetts, Michigan, and New Jersey report the largest numbers of students in this offering.

5. The total enrolment in foreign languages in public secondary day schools at midcentury was 1,164,699, or 21.5 per cent of all pupils attending such schools. The state with the highest per cent of enrolment in languages was Massachusetts (45.4 per cent); and the lowest, Arkansas (5.5 per cent). French is strongest in Massachusetts; German, in New Jersey; Italian, in New York; Latin, in Delaware; Spanish, in New Mexico; and general language, in Pennsylvania.

6. Fewer than six states reported public secondary day school classes in Bohemian, Greek, Hebrew, Norse, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, and Swedish, with a total combined enrolment of 5,739.

SOME EARMARKS OF INEFFECTIVE AND OF GOOD TEACHING

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THE CHANGING NATURE of the secondary-school population in the past ten to twenty-five years has raised a problem to which too many teachers have not found an answer. The majority of the students in an average big-city school come from substandard homes in slum areas. Most come from homes where books, magazines, pictures, and other cultural influences are almost completely lacking. Absent also are the attitudes toward culture and learning which are associated with middle-class standards. Although more children go to college today than in the preceding generation, so great has been the influx into the secondary schools of children from working-class homes that it is an unusual school where students preparing for college equal more than a very small per cent of those who have no such intention.

It was not always so. In past decades the middle-class boy or girl was the predominant type of student in our secondary schools. The schools are approaching the admirable goal of reaching "all the children of all the people," but many educators are still at a loss as to how to teach them.

It has been pointed out that the average experienced teacher is himself usually drawn from a middle-class milieu. He is confronted each term with more and more children from a cultural field unlike his—with children whose interests are nonacademic, whose attitudes are different, and who are nonverbally minded.

How have teachers reacted to this? Visit any teacher's room in a typical high school and listen to the complaints about the students. They run something like this:

The present bunch does not want to learn anything.

They have no real work habits.

They just have no culture. They have such miserable home influences.

Students today just cannot read. You can't give them reference work or library assignments. They don't do homework.

They have no aesthetic sense, no appreciation for the finer things in life—and do not want any.

What manners!

They are so different from the students we had ten years ago [or fifteen, or twenty, or thirty years ago].

The bell rings, the teachers leave their grumblings behind, and each

goes out to meet the situation. How? Here are five possible ways.

UNSUCCESSFUL TEACHERS

Mr. Taskmaster.—He is determined to maintain the educational standards of yesteryear. His philosophy is to assign plenty of homework in the textbook and give stiff tests daily. He says:

"Mark them down regardless of how many fail. If the class recitation is poor, as it usually is, lecture. Give it to them yourself. Make sure that someone tells them the right things."

Mr. Softie.—He starts by recognizing the "low caliber" of his students, their unwillingness or inability to accomplish the tasks he might give them. He does not even try to get much across. He recommends:

"Be pleasant in class, amusing if you can—if they think you're regular, you have no problems. Don't try too hard, it will not work. Lecture most of the time. It's easier, it keeps things moving somewhat. Let them fill in the last word of an occasional sentence to keep them alert. Pass all who come often enough. Don't bother with tests. Also, forget about keeping up with your subject. You certainly know enough for these children. They won't be able to handle outside work anyway."

Mr. Practical.—He tries to fall in between the two extremes mentioned above. He feels that, if he does his work normally, relying on reason, he will get along. He tells himself:

"Don't fret yourself about the fact that you seem to be accomplishing little. It's the kind of youngsters we're getting. You might as well use your old outlines, cutting out some details here and there. So you feel that you're getting a little lazy. Too bad, there was once a time. . . . Still, if you're going to keep your equilibrium around here. . . ."

Mr. Unhappy.—He is the bitter, often sarcastic type. He places the same hard problems of years past before his classes and "bawls out" those who do not understand. Then, at the end of the term, he passes most, because he "knew they couldn't get the work anyway." He says that the teachers cannot forget the kinds of students and the work that formerly distinguished the school. He will tell the students how poor they are. He complains:

"You can't blame me for resenting the waste of my scholarship on these 'lugs.' Anyway, I am still keeping up some private research at home, a little study of Spencer's *Faerie Queene*. No, nothing I'd bother talking about to these classes of mine."

Effects on teacher and students.—Much is said about the bad effects of television on students. Television may be having an even worse effect on the unsuccessful teachers described. Feeling that the youngsters cannot even succeed with the work of the textbooks, lecturing to them in the false hope of teaching them what they have "neglected" to study, the teacher

feels little desire and need to keep up in his field and to spend time searching for enriching materials. He becomes a lover of television fights or a viewer of give-away shows. He is just another middle-class citizen trying to forget the day's toil by mild diversion. He is not a teacher in the best sense the term implies.

Equally entitled to pity is the stern taskmaster who says, "I will make these children 'toe the line' or they will just flunk themselves." He gives his daily reading assignment in the textbook, his daily quiz, and his zeros for more than half the class. He feels he is upholding educational standards, and he lets his colleagues realize how much they are letting him and the other few guardians of the educational system down. His effect on the youngsters is debilitating. He swells the list of early drop-outs. He stamps the mark "unsuccessful" on many an able youngster. He reinforces the non-verbally minded student in his feeling that school is foreign, unrealistic, meant for others, and unnecessary for the real struggle with life's problems. Our high-minded pedagogue has overlooked the well-known fact that schools must fit the child, not the child the school.

THE SUCCESSFUL TEACHER

Mr. Success.—He seldom feels completely successful. He has private misgivings about meeting the problem adequately, but he does not stop trying. He does not seek to escape his problem. He does not bear down on his pupils in what he knows will be a futile attempt, and he does not martyr himself on the altars of ignorance.

He studies his methods. He usually decides that the ordinary recitation from the textbook plus outside reading —a method he found so satisfactory in the past—does not add up to anything but a dull lesson and an unwilling student. He finds himself searching for different methods in order to give variety to his teaching. He appreciates the ancient adage that "one picture is worth a thousand words." His students draw more maps, they take more field trips, see more educational films. They listen to community leaders who are invited to discuss labor problems before the class or to read Robert Frost's poems. The successful teacher calls upon students to interview many people, to write of their own out-of-school work experiences, to bring in special clippings from the "yellow" journals which they are accustomed to reading.

He does not overlook the real capacities of most of his students. He recognizes the fact that pupils from slum areas, pupils with few middle-class cultural enrichments, still have educational needs that can and must be satisfied. The task is not easy, nor is it always as satisfying as some of the educators specializing in theory would have us believe. He has his days of small achievement. Nevertheless, he is consumed with the passion to teach the children before him; to get them to

acquire, through a variety of means, the educational values which are necessary for *all* citizens of our land.

He is not content, however, to leave them on their own level. As he establishes more rapport with his class by having them succeed on their own level, he introduces them to the books, the magazines, the papers he would like them to make use of. The instructor realizes that the important end is what attitudes the child has, what understanding he has acquired of the world around him, what aesthetic values he has gained.

It goes without saying that the successful teacher never makes his students feel that they are inferior to the others he has taught in the past. Knowing his pupils, he does not expect them to rush into Shakespeare cheerfully, nor to study Muzzey carefully, even when these studies seem useless to the youngsters (as they also may have seemed to former more ambitious, college-preparatory students). He does not bemoan their lack of work habits, their noisier but more natural "roughhouse" when the class assembles, their acceptance of low standards of civic morality, their unwillingness to talk before a group, their unintellectual attitude. He knows, as Allison Davis has pointed out, that there are valid reasons why this behavior is common to children from the poorer areas.[1]

[1] Allison Davis, "Ability and Survival," *Survey*, LXXXVII (February, 1951), 60–63. See also by the same author "Socio-economic Influences upon Children's Learning," *School Life*, XXXIII (March, 1951), 87.

BRINGING OUT THE BEST IN STUDENTS

A good teacher takes his children as they are, knowing that they will respond to a friendly, man-to-man approach. If he is enthusiastic about his subject, there is almost nothing of a higher nature that he cannot introduce to these youngsters—if he goes about it the right way. Examples by the hundreds abound in any big-city high school of the amazing quality of work that the good teachers bring forth. The same youngsters, dubbed unpromising by teachers trying to get them to learn American government in a formalized way, often astound everyone by their part in the activities of the Senior class. They organize themselves into councils which run "proms," publish newspapers, put on class-day programs—in short, do an enviable job of practicing democracy.

Recently in one school the social-studies department encouraged the students to write their own "History Digest." Students were asked to write their views on the news of the day and on the problems of their school, their city, and their nation. Their comments were invited on any of the historical events or personalities that they were studying. The results were amazing. The student editorial board was busy sifting the best from hundreds of articles with titles such as "My Views on Race Relations," "I Live in a Slum," "Thoughts on Columbus," "What's Wrong with Our Student Council," "Education under Mussolini," "We're Right about

Korea," "We're Going Too Socialist," "Fighters I've Liked," and "The Draft of Eighteen-Year-Olds."

The result was a 47-page mimeographed booklet containing the uncensored and stimulating ideas of some 75 students. At five cents apiece, 850 copies were sold in one day. Students talked about the articles for days, challenging the authors and each other on many of them; history was alive for these students. The booklet astounded many of the faculty. Over and over members of the faculty made such comments as these: I didn't think our kids would have been interested in that stuff." "How do you get them to do it?"

The good teacher not only studies his pupils but also studies his subject. He looks with sharp eyes at what needs to be stressed and what can be omitted. He shocks himself often at how many of the dreary recitations of secondhand facts formerly memorized are better left out. He finds that presenting a firsthand source is often more interesting and valuable for learning than tens of pages of textbook material. Studying the Constitution itself in class and preceding or following it with a film, such as "Servant of the People" or "How a Bill Becomes a Law," plus a mock constitutional convention acted out in class is better for learning than anything a textbook writer ever put down on paper. And teachers know that doing this leads some students to the very reading materials they otherwise would have shunned.

CONCLUDING COMMENT

Most teachers have learned to know their students and their subjects. Others sense the problem in part but are unhappy that the whole picture is not bright. Any experienced teacher can study his situation and himself and easily see the first steps that are necessary to improve his educational efforts, with greater happiness and benefit for his students and himself. The teacher must realize that his professional and personal success can be measured by how well he draws out the best that his students have to offer.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON EXTRA-CLASS ACTIVITIES[1]

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EVER SINCE the introduction of student activities into the school there has been the task of co-ordinating these activities with the class instructional program. Scheduling, financing, sponsorship, extent of faculty control, and eligibility for participation have been but a few of the problems that have plagued administrators. However, certain recent trends have been helpful in clarifying the relationship between student activities and class programs.

In the first place, a broader interpretation has been made of the *curriculum*. Now it is becoming a widely accepted fact that any activities of educative value under the direction of the school are considered a part of the curriculum. Second, many so-called "extra-curriculum" activities have been incorporated into the daily class schedule as legitimate subjects for credit toward graduation. Finally, more emphasis is being placed on vitalizing the classroom program by the use of procedures which have proved successful in the student-activity program. As another step toward breaking down the dichotomy of two competing programs within the school, the authors of this annotated bibliography have suggested that the term "extra-class" be substituted for "extra-curriculum" in references made to student activities.

The following references are selected from materials on extra-class activities that have been published between December 1, 1951, and December 31, 1952. The literature in this field continues to present a wide variety of problems and proposals, ranging from broad and general discussions of philosophy to specific suggestions for administration of extra-class activity programs and for actual supervision of specific activities.

486. ALLEN, J. E., JR. "Relationship of Extra-Curricular Activities to Salaries," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXII (Spring, 1952), 141–49.

Presents a thorough discussion of the issues involved in the relationship of extra-curriculum activities to salaries and proposes possible solutions.

487. ANDERSON, KENNETH E. *A Summary Report to the North Central High Schools of Kansas on Criterion 2: Pupil Activity Program, Library Service, Guidance*

[1] See also Item 175 (Smith) in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1953, issue of the *School Review*.

Service. Kansas Studies in Education, Vol. III. Lawrence, Kansas: University of Kansas, January, 1952. Pp. 24.

Presents the results of a survey of 207 Kansas schools, which includes data supplied by 144 schools on participation in school government, school organizations, and administration of the activity program.

488. BAKER, JANET BASSETT JOHNSON. "U.N. Youth Develop Global Consciousness," *School Activities*, XXIII (May, 1952), 285–87.

Relates how the United Nations Youth Club of Forest Park High School, Baltimore, promotes international understanding by means of various types of club meetings, assembly programs, exhibits, and international correspondence.

489. BARR, RICHARD A. "The Oyster Club: Can Club Activities Change Attitudes?" *Clearing House*, XXVII (October, 1952), 109–11.

Sketches briefly the objectives and operation of a club for high-school boys and presents the results of an attempt to evaluate attitude changes of club members over a period of one school year. Suggests that club activities may be overrated in their ability to change attitudes.

490. BEAR, WILLARD. "Making a Student Body Budget," *School Activities*, XXIII (March, 1952), 219–20.

Outlines seven steps in activity budgeting.

491. BOTTS, ROBERT E. "Lakewood's Special Interest Club Program," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (March, 1952), 153–57.

Describes a club program that attempts to meet the "exploratory" objective of the junior high school. Includes purposes, procedures, and problems for consideration.

492. BRAUN, CATHERINE H. "The School Assembly," *School Activities*, XXIII (February, 1952), 181–80.

Considers the "why," "what," "who," "where," and "when" of the school assembly in assuring a successful program.

493. BROWN, IDA STEWART. "Group Development in a Junior High School Student Council," *Educational Leadership*, IX (May, 1952), 496–501.

Reports the findings of a research team studying a junior high school student council in action.

494. BURS, WILLIAM E. "Extracurricular Discussion in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (May, 1952), 89–101.

Describes a new type of program of interscholastic discussion-debate activities. This issue of the *Bulletin* also includes other articles of interest on extra-class speech activities.

495. CAHN, M. M. "Music as an Extracurricular Activity," *Music Educators Journal*, XXXVIII (April, 1952), 20–21, 24.

Admits that music has won an accepted and honored position in the curriculum but suggests that its place in the extracurriculum program should not therefore be neglected.

496. CALLENDER, WESLEY P., JR. "More Dramatics for Personality Adjustment," *Clearing House*, XXVI (January, 1952), 301–3.

Discusses a number of mental-hygiene and personality adjustment possibilities in dramatic activities and advocates a more extensive program of student dramatic activities as an aid to personality adjustment.

497. CARLSON, THORSTEN R., and MOORE, EDWENA M. "A School Council Aids Learning," *Educational Leadership*, IX (April, 1952), 438–43.

Describes how a student council was initiated and conducted by elementary-school pupils and gives suggestions concerning procedures and learning outcomes that are also applicable to the secondary-school level.

498. CEDERBERG, THEODORE. "The Big Show," *School Activities*, XXIII (January, 1952), 150–53.

Provides a "basic recipe for a better-than-average school or club variety show" and illustrates thirteen suggestions or themes which may be used.

499. CHAMBERS, LOIS MERWIN. "San Joaquin Valley Girls' Playday Organization," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (April, 1952), 229–32.

Outlines the development of an organization within an area including fifty-four secondary schools which has as its purpose the formulation of "approved standards for participation in playday activities."

500. COUPER, GEORGE P. "The Future Farmers Belong to You," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (March, 1952), 176–79.

Outlines aims, policies, and achievements of the Future Farmers of America and shows the organization's vital relation to the curriculum and to the community.

501. DIETTERT, CHESTER C. "What Is Wrong with Basketball?" *School Activities*, XXIV (December, 1952), 129–30.

Raises several penetrating questions useful in evaluating basketball activity in any school.

502. DODSON, TAYLOR. "Officials Are Important," *School Activities*, XXIV (September, 1952), 13–14, 34.

Stresses co-operation of student participants, coaches, officials, and spectators in making athletic events more valuable, successful, and enjoyable.

503. ELICKER, PAUL E. (editor). "Vitalizing Student Activities in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (February, 1952), 1–228.

Beginning with a summary of "Critical Problems in the Administration of Student Activities," by Edgar G. Johnston, the entire issue of the *Bulletin* is devoted to issues and problems of all phases of a student-activity program. The editor indicates two noticeable developments during the past ten years: (1) "The student-activity program is now an established part of the total school program. (2) "School administrators are more concerned with control of all student activities."

504. ESTRIN, HERMAN A. "Effective Training Procedures for Faculty Advisers," *School Activities*, XXIV (December, 1952), 123–25.

Describes the function and accomplishments of a council of faculty advisers.

505. EVANS, CAROLYN C. "Student Leaders Are Made," *NEA Journal*, XVI (November, 1952), 518–19.

A student describes camp activities and benefits of the Denver Leadership Training Conference for high-school student leaders.

506. FERDIAN, JOHN J., JR. "A Club and News Column as Influences in Guidance," *School Review*, LX (October, 1952), 424–29.

Describes the objectives and activities of a student club organized to supplement the guidance functions of the counselor and points out the public relations value that a news column in local newspapers has for the guidance program.

507. GRASSELL, E. MILTON. "Linden's Student and Teacher Camp Conference," *Clearing House*, XXVI (February, 1952), 348–50.

Reports on the planning, operating, and evaluating of an annual preschool camp conference which included teachers, class officers, and student-body officers of the high school at Linden, California.

508. HEARN, ARTHUR C. "Evaluating the School Activity Program," *School Activities*, XXIII (February, 1952), 179–80.

Suggests three techniques to be used in the evaluation of school activity programs

—the check list, the opinion poll, and behavioral changes of pupils.

509. HELBLE, HERBERT H. "Commencement Programs That Click," *School Activities*, XXIII (January, 1952), 148–49.

Offers two suggestions for improving commencement programs and describes a number of excellent programs which deviated from the conventional stereotype.

510. HELBLE, HERBERT H. "Extra-class Activities," *NEA Journal*, XLI (February, 1952), 75–77.

Indicates four fundamental needs of youth that are met by extra-class activities, gives practical hints for successful administration, and lists six unsolved problems.

511. HESS, WALTER E. "Personality: How Student Councils Develop It," *Clearing House*, XXVI (March, 1952), 420–22.

Maintains that the student council can be an important factor in developing the personalities of students and lists seventeen qualities of a school-council sponsor which are believed influential in developing favorable personality characteristics in students.

512. JOHNSTON, EDGAR G., and FAUNCE, ROLAND C. *Student Activities in Secondary Schools*, New York: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. x+370.

Accepts "that point of view which incorporates the extra-curricular activity into the curriculum," and then, on the basis of probable continued distinction between the curriculum and extra-curriculum activity, goes on to consider the particular contributions which a variety of activities can make to the total school program.

513. JUERGENSMERER, THELMA. "Logan on the Air: Weekly Dramatic and Choral Shows," *Clearing House*, XXVI (March, 1952), 396–98.

Describes the development and presentation of weekly radio programs by the mixed chorus and the dramatic club of the high school at Logan, West Virginia, and suggests that such activities have much educational value.

514. KELLER, RUTH MAYNARD. "How To Keep Elections from Becoming Popularity Contests," *School Activities*, XXIII (April, 1952), 243–55.

Suggests ways to provide for better selection of officers in student government, in classes, and in clubs.

515. KLOPF, GORDON. *Planning Student Activities in the High School*. Madison, Wisconsin: Bureau of Information and Program Services, Extension Division, University of Wisconsin, 1951. Pp. 113.

In a simple, practical manner, covers various aspects of an activity program, such as leadership, parliamentary procedure, program-planning, and publicity.

516. LUCAS, MARJORIE. "Student Activities at Sequoia Union High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (April, 1952), 223–26.

Shows the development of student activities at Redwood City, California, in four areas—administrative, athletic, cultural, and social—with emphasis on service to the school, to one's group, and to the community.

517. LYNCH, JAMES M., JR. "Vail Teachers Are Publicity Specialists," *Clearing House*, XXVII (October, 1952), 86–88.

Describes a public relations program in which teachers specialize in various approaches to school publicity, including several in the nature of school activities.

518. MCKOWN, HARRY C. *Extracurricular Activities*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1952 (third edition). Pp. xvi+666.

This revision of an earlier work presents a thorough discussion of the purposes and principles of extra-curriculum activities in general and gives individual attention to more than a dozen specific activities.

519. MCKOWN, HARRY C. "Child Development through Extra-curricular Activities," *Education*, LXXII (December, 1951), 272–77.

Illustrates how extra-curriculum activities contribute to child development in the following areas: (1) physical, (2) social, (3) growth for responsible community membership, (4) curiosity, (5) accomplishment, (6) recreational, and (7) spiritual.

520. MANNING, GEORGE A. "What Are Sound Policies for Controlling Nonathletic National Contests and Activities Offered to Schools by Outside Organizations?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 29–33.

Summarizes recommendations of the National Contest Committee for controlling nonathletic contests.

521. MILLER, FLOYD A., and DAHL, SAM. "A Survey of Student Activity Programs," *School Activities*, XXIII (May, 1952), 275–77.

Describes an extensive survey of Nebraska Central Association high schools in the areas of student participation in school government, general evaluation of school organizations and activities, and administration of the program. Presents significant implications for developing more widespread student participation and responsibility.

522. MUELLER, KATE H. "Training for Citizenship through Student Activities," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXI (December, 1952), 162–66.

Maintains that citizenship training through student-government organization will fall far short of its possibilities unless character-training becomes one of the major objectives and receives the attention it deserves.

523. NEUBAUER, DOROTHY (editor). "The Assembly Program as a Learning Experience," *National Elementary Principal*, XXXI (December, 1951), 1–40.

Devotes entire issue to the values of the assembly program and to planning and developing worth-while assembly activities. Although directed toward the elementary school, the articles carry many implications for the secondary school as well.

524. RINGNESS, T. A. "Maybe We Should Let Football into the Classroom," *Nation's Schools*, L (September, 1952), 82–84.

Maintains that activity programs are successful because they follow the rules of educational psychology and suggests that "instead of drafting the outside activities into a formal program, we might do well to consider making the formal program more like the activities."

525. ROMINE, S. A. "Administering Pupil Activities in Secondary Schools," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLV (April, 1952), 615–21.

Reports the results of a study of school activities in 230 secondary schools in Colorado. An attempt was made to classify activities as curricular, co-curricular, and extra-curricular, and to evaluate each in terms of their contribution to pupil growth and development.

526. SARGENT, EDWARD H., JR. "Student Radio Show Sold to National Sponsor," *Clearing House*, XXVI (January, 1952), 291–94.

Although the author has not made a specific point of it, his description of a Radio Club which grew out of a high-school course in radio is an excellent example of the interrelatedness of activities in and out of class in the modern school.

527. SAVAGE, F. W. "An Evaluation of Music Contest-Festivals," *School Activities*, XXIII (February, 1952), 187–89.

Attempts to clarify the objectives of music festivals, contests, and clinics, with special implications for the music program in the public schools of Texas.

528. SEIDNER, EARLE R., and LONG, C. DARL. "What Are the Most Effective Methods and Practices for Eliminating Fraternities and Sororities?" *Bulletin of*

the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXXVI (March, 1952), 162–79.

Two principals outline the procedures used in eliminating strongly intrenched fraternities and sororities from their schools.

529. SHANNON, J. R. "The Vanishing Wall between Courses and Activities," *Clearing House*, XXVII (September, 1952), 8–12.

Maintains that the dichotomy between high-school curriculum and extra-curriculum activities is vanishing and that this is a trend favorable to the total process of high-school education, from the standpoint both of motivation and of teaching method.

530. SHIPP, FREDERIC T. "School Clubs for Every Girl," *School Activities*, XXIII (March, 1952), 211–12.

Describes how Abraham Lincoln High School of San Jose, California, has provided more adequte girls' activities by organizing "service clubs" in which 98 per cent of the girls are enrolled.

531. STRUB, GEORGE R. "Plainfield's Student News Bureau," *Clearing House*, XXVII (October, 1952), 89–91.

Describes a student news bureau through which some four hundred news articles written by high-school students found their way into the local newspaper. Presents a classified list of news topics which were included.

532. "Symposium on Secret Societies in Highschool," *NEA Journal*, XLI (March, 1952), 141–42.

Outlines the "legal status of secret societies, reasons for their existence," and four main objections to them. The article also describes how a number of schools have succeeded in eliminating secret societies.

533. TARLOW, MILTON. "The '3 P's' of School Publications," *School Activities*, XXIII (May, 1952), 278–80.

Suggests how the school publications may become more than "sheets of nonsense" by application of three yardsticks *before* publication—prospectus, purpose, and policy.

534. TOMPKINS, ELLSWORTH. "Extra Pay for Extra Work?" *School Activities*, XXIII (February, 1952), 196–98.

Recommends the use of an activity period within the daily time schedule as one answer to the problem of extra pay for extra work.

535. TOMPKINS, ELLSWORTH. "A Survey of Extraclass Activities," *School Activities*, XXIV (December, 1952), 115–17.

Reveals interesting data obtained from a survey of twenty-seven California Bay Area secondary schools, indicating kinds of information which other school systems might wish to obtain.

536. WALKER, RITA. "Building Better Yearbooks." *School Activities*, XXIV (December, 1952), 127–29.

Offers excellent suggestions on how to improve the high-school yearbook.

537. WALTERS, GEORGE F. "Evaluating Student Council Procedures," *School Activities*, XXIV (October, 1952), 59–63.

Reports the results of a survey of a sampling of public high schools throughout the country. Deals primarily with student-government procedures.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

EDGAR G. JOHNSTON and ROLAND C. FAUNCE, *Student Activities in Secondary Schools: Enrichment of the Educational Program*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. x+370. $4.50.

The solid values of student activities in educating youth in the skills and responsibilities of democratic group action are ably developed throughout this practical volume on the activity program. *Student Activities in Secondary Schools* was written as a textbook for teachers and administrators in training. As stated by the authors in the Preface, the central purpose of the book is to present "A reconsideration and reappraisal [of the various aspects of the extra-curriculum program] in compact form for use in college courses" (p. i). It is the opinion of this reviewer that the authors have accomplished that end rather well, using a style that is reasonably free of the heavy and stereotyped phrases of most college textbooks in education.

Professors Johnston and Faunce have not undertaken an exhaustive treatise for the advanced student or experienced administrator in secondary education. Philosophical issues and research studies are reviewed as they contribute to a clearer presentation of operating principles, functions, and good practice in the several types of student activities commonly found in secondary schools.

The fundamental idea that activities are essential to effective learning whether in the classroom or outside the classroom is emphasized throughout the book. The authors properly caution their readers, however:

> Some enthusiasts have made the mistake of taking for granted that anything which is extracurricular must be *ipso facto* sound education. We need to recognize that the values from any school situation are not automatic but merely potential [pp. 11–12].

Johnston and Faunce warn that student councils, athletics, clubs, and other popular types of extra-curriculum activities may serve to develop false values and negative attitudes if not given intelligent direction. Nonetheless, it seems probable that, as long as classroom instruction remains preoccupied with routine recitation procedures, extra-curriculum activities will constitute the chief potential for character education and for training in democratic social and civic values in the secondary school.

The two introductory chapters present a sound, although somewhat sketchy, review of the nature of student activities and their functions in meeting the characteristic needs of youth. Despite a rather superficial interpretation of data from studies on drop-outs and an occasional dogmatic statement (such as this one on page 24, "A school in which students do not participate in planning is thus a school in which the learning process does not function"), the authors achieve a substantial and fresh treatment of the foundations of student activities.

Ten chapters dealing with principles, trends, and practices in conducting activities in special fields make up the main body of the book. A chapter is devoted to each of the established types of student activities. Included are chapters on pupil participation in the administration of the school, classroom and home-room organization, school assemblies, clubs, athletics, music, speech, publications, social programs, and camping.

The chapters on student participation, classroom and home-room organization, school assemblies, clubs, school publications, and camping and outdoor activities are well done and bring together much of the more recent literature on these activities, and successful experiences of good schools with them. The suggested activities and illustrative projects in these chapters are excellent. Descriptions of outstanding projects, such as the follow-up study of students who dropped out of school which was conducted by the Senior class in Royal Oak (Michigan) High School, the joint commencement of the high schools in Denver, the social-science forum of the Benjamin Franklin High School of Rochester, New York, and the school-camping programs in Michigan, should give prospective sponsors some valuable guides.

To a considerable extent the chapters on athletics, music, speech, and social activities follow the pattern of earlier works on extracurriculum activities. In the chapter on athletics the authors engage in some sermonizing without offering sinners much hope of salvation. It is important to point out to the prodigal the error of his ways, but it is also important to give him strength. A historical account of the regulation of athletic competition in Michigan is interesting but not very solid spiritual nourishment.

The chapters on the school and the community, on administering the activity program, and on evaluating student activities combine descriptions of newer developments with presentations of sound working principles in these areas. A brief look at some of the limitations and abuses of "going" activity programs provides a realistic note of caution in the final chapter.

Professors Johnston and Faunce do professional workers in secondary education a service in bringing together in a single volume much that is new in theory and practice in the significant and rapidly moving field of student activities. The sound perspective, based on their own extensive experience, with which they interpret these developments makes this a valuable textbook.

L. A. VAN DYKE

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VICTOR JELENKO, *The Republic of the Schools.* New York 16: Exposition Press, 1952. Pp. 224. $3.00.

This book, which is dedicated to the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, is definitely a blueprint for the rehabilitation of democratic education in our schools. On the theory that education is too serious a business for the professional educators to carry the load alone, we welcome this irritating treatise from a layman. The Foreword by Gerald Johnson gets this critical study off to a good start.

Listing some of the names of prominent educators to whom acknowledgments are made indicates that this courageous advocate of better citizenship education has had exceptionally sound backing: John Dewey, Frank Aydelotte, Abraham Flexner, William Kilpatrick, Frank Graham, Willard Givens, James Loeb, John Studebaker, Richard Welling. In this connection it should be stated here that the author reviewed carefully the widely featured ideas of Robert Hutchins, Henry Barnard, Horace Mann, and Thomas Jefferson, which gave him a solid base for the kind of reasoning he has demonstrated.

Victor Jelenko, in *The Republic of the Schools*, has exposed the weaknesses of our general social structure and community life. He failed to discover reassuring evidence that our youth are taught the type of thinking indispensable in our modern institutional relations. We have hitherto neglected to provide a truly satisfying mode of living for our young people, who thus mature ill equipped to keep the peace and prevent economic distress. Particularly do we err in not inviting the patrons of our schools to compare idealis-

tic principles of democracy with the way these academic formulations are misused in the give-and-take of public and private life.

Characteristic of literary style employed by the author is his statement that the "sick body politic suggests the kind of dirty, corrupt, infected, diseased politics by which we now choose our policies and representatives." He makes much of the parallel between society and the human body, which both deserve an unimpaired bloodstream and a sufficient supply of what it takes to maintain health. He has searched out the sore spots in society and suggested methods of curing them through education. Jelenko sincerely believes in the efficacy of pedagogical medicine to remedy the contaminated political, economic, social, and cultural areas that should shame us into immediate action.

The chapter titles are arresting: "Statesmen Plead and Citizens Dread," "The Tragedy and the Hope," "Bad Habits and Good Habits," "Top-heavy Athletics and Balanced Curricula," "Internship in Politics," "Democracy Must Be Earned," "The Perfectibility of Man." The central or key chapter is the sixteenth, which attempts to outline a practical program of curriculum reconstruction. To the reviewer the program seems feasible and psychologically well grounded. Much of what is proposed is already being set up, with favorable outcomes that apparently have not yet been called to the attention of the author. In fact, for a full generation we teachers have held ourselves accountable for more positive and fruitful social instruction, with laboratory exercises and beneficial field trips.

One of the best features of this volume is the attention given to the international scene, a careful analysis having been made of Axis educational activities, which overemphasized the molding of youth into servants of an immoral state while we have been underestimating the necessity for specific training in self-government and wholesome citizenship. This challenging thought is introduced: Why do the nations opposed to communism and other totalitarian systems approach their moral responsibility so slowly and complacently? Especially, why have not our own educational institutions made more rapid strides in rectifying the shortcomings of our social and civic life? The author's main contribution is his recommendation that our leaders assist their children in organizing themselves into the "Republic of the Schools." He urges earnestly that we take politics into the classroom.

CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN

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METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

*

ARISTOTLE ON EDUCATION

AT LEAST ONCE in his career, every University of Chicago professor is expected to mention, and preferably to quote, what the Great Philosophers of classical antiquity have written about the field of his especial competence. Of the classical philosophers, Aristotle is preferred, although Plato is certainly acceptable; however, a few of my colleagues have followed the novel custom of utilizing some of the lesser-known luminaries, such as Anaxagoras or Thales. I have seized upon this occasion to discharge my debt to Aristotle primarily because of a brief article by William Heard Kilpatrick, "Dewey's Philosophy of Education," appearing in the January, 1953, number of the *Educational Forum*, in which Dewey is quoted as saying that, to Aristotle and to the Greeks generally, the highest exercise of man's reason is that of pure contemplation—

"of observation, meditation and speculation pursued as an end in itself." The life of reason thus seeks "knowing for the sake of knowing, irrespective of any application."

The quotations come from pages 295 and 298 of Dewey's *Democracy and Education*. On first reading, this strikes one as an extraordinarily wayward and foolish doctrine for Aristotle to have enunciated; in the relevant pages of *Democracy and Education*, in the middle of a brief chapter on "Labor and Leisure" (chap. xix), Dewey summarizes the Aristotelian position, though without specific reference to chapter and verse in the original. In tracing the classical Greek position back to the social setting in which it arose, Dewey continues:

> Slaves, artisans, and women are employed in furnishing the means of subsistence in order that others, those adequately equipped with intelligence, may live the life of leisurely concern with things intrinsically worth while.
>
> To these two modes of occupation, with their distinction of servile and free activities (or "arts") correspond two types of education: the base or mechanical and the liberal or intellectual.

This passage intrigued me. To be sure, it accurately summarizes the current stereotype of Aristotle as a conservative philosopher with a strong bent toward abstract speculation. On the other hand, it could turn out to be merely another instance of the unfortunate misinterpretations which one great man places upon the work of another. I resolved to see for myself. Some years ago, as the result of a generous parental allowance at college, I had acquired the complete, eleven-volume Oxford translation of Aristotle's *Works*. Blowing the dust off the top of the volumes, I began searching through the indexes for references to "education" and came across an extensive treatment of that topic in Book VII and Book VIII, of the *Politics*. (Book VIII, the final section of that work, ends rather abruptly on a minor key; one suspects that a terminal portion of the manuscript has been lost from view, moldering in the cellars of antiquity. Yet, again, Ernest Barker's article on Aristotle in the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* informs us that many of the extant treatises were notes prepared in connection with lectures in the School, so it is possible that the semester devoted to that subject may have come to a close before the philosopher had an opportunity to round out his treatment.)

Read literally, some passages in the text of the *Politics* clearly contradict Dewey's interpretation that Aristotle envisioned a dual system of education corresponding to the two categories of persons in the state. For instance, the second paragraph of Book VIII contains a straightforward and unambiguous argument for a unified system of public education:

> And since the whole city has one end, it is manifest that education should be one and the same for all, and that it should be public, and not private,—not as at present, when everyone looks after his own children separately, and gives them separate instruction of the sort which he thinks best; the training in things which are of common interest should be the same for all. Neither must we suppose that any one of the citizens belongs to himself, for they all belong to the state, and are each of them a part of the state, and the care of each part is inseparable from the care of the whole. In this particular as in some others the Lacedaemonians are to be praised, for they take the greatest pains about their children, and make education the business of the state [1337[a], 21–34].

Unfortunately, as every teacher knows, an author's position on a major question of theory or policy cannot be validly established through citation of individual passages however direct and definite the literal meaning of the words themselves. To begin with, there is the matter of the *context* in which the sentence or paragraph appears. Second, it may be possible to find other passages which have or imply a directly opposite meaning to that contained in the original citation, either because the author is genuinely confused and inconsistent or because his views on this matter have changed through time so that different citations can be extracted from different phases of his intellectual development. Inconsistency can also arise because of divergence between "private" opin-

ion, embodied in manuscripts not intended for general circulation, and "public" opinion to which the overriding pressure of external force or custom constrains him to render homage. Finally and most importantly, the passage in question should be judged in terms of the unified *system* which the author has erected. Almost all writers of any intellectual stature have had occasional flashes of wisdom or lapses into folly which seem to lie outside the boundaries of their system, to be uncharacteristic and isolated from the main stream of their thought.

For these reasons, adequate and accurate depiction of a writer's total intention is a matter of the utmost difficulty. This applies with particular cogency, as a matter of fact, to Dewey himself, as can be verified by almost any professional educator who has gone through the customary initiation into his works. Though we do homage at the altar, the oracle speaks with many tongues.

But to return to Aristotle! In the case of a writer separated from his readers by an alien tongue and two millenniums of history, the simple problem of the technical meaning of terms raises additional barriers to our understanding. So also does the authenticity of the text. Aristotle's *Politics* is held in disrepute by many Greek scholars; parts of it may have been composed by the philosopher himself, but the hand of a substitute teacher without certificate is clearly discernible, these authorities contend, in the remainder. Candor compels me to confess that internal evidence of the text supports this contention. Most of the discussion of Book VIII is taken up with matters which seem pedantic or trivial, even for the conditions of that time and place, and are altogether unusable for the educational concerns of modern man. Observing that the curriculum consists of reading and writing, gymnastics, music, and drawing, a lengthy examination is made of the appropriate forms of musical instruction as part of a liberal education, in the course of which the following gem of wisdom is contained:

> The flute is not an instrument which is expressive of moral character; it is too exciting. The proper time for using it is when the performance aims not at instruction, but at the relief of the passions (1341^{a}, 21).

Aristotle, I judge, lacks a sense of humor.

Turning aside from the disappointing performance of the closing section of the *Politics*, our initial question still remains unanswered: Did Aristotle in fact advocate a dual system of education based on a distinction between types of individuals related in some fashion to the existing structure of social classes?

As a preliminary to the next stage of the investigation, I trotted upstairs to confer with two of my esteemed colleagues, George E. Barton, Jr., and Harold B. Dunkel, who specialize in such matters. Barton was at home meditating, but Dunkel extracted from his sleeve a piece of paper on which were written the titles and subheads of the major Aristotelian works

dealing with the topic of education. (References to Plato were stocked in his shirt pocket, Dewey in his hatband, and Froebel in his hip pocket; there was also an auxiliary wastebasket filled with other references, but I had no opportunity to see who occupied this position of honor.)

Most of the citations supplied by Dr. Dunkel referred to the *Nicomachean Ethics*, particularly to the first nine chapters of Book I, the first seven chapters of Book II, the initial seven chapters of Book VI, and chapters 4–9 of Book X, in which Aristotle discusses the nature of the good life and inferentially, but only inferentially, brings in the contributions which education makes to this ideal of conduct.

Reading the *Ethics*, one can, I think, gain some conception of the foundation on which rests the intellectual pre-eminence of Aristotle in the history of thought, and of why generations of students in the classical tradition have found it worth while to undergo the labor that its understanding demands. It possesses the two indispensable characteristics of high artistry, that is to say, grandeur and rapidity. Ranging over the entire spectrum, from shrewd observations of everyday problems of human conduct to discussions of the nature of justice in the ideal state, mood and subject matter are extremely diverse. It is difficult to extract quotable fragments from the text, for Aristotle never trims the edges of his thought in the effort to be epigrammatic. (In this, by the way, he much resembles Dewey even though, in the cadences of their style, the two authors are poles apart. Aristotle's dry, sustained, but slightly monotonous rhythms—this is in translation, of course—read like some minor contemporary of Mozart; while Dewey's repetitious, lumbering presentation, rising occasionally to peaks of high eloquence, is like a theme by Mahler with a Tchaikovsky orchestration.)

Every high-school teacher of social science should make an effort to go through the *Ethics*, preferably with a copy by the bedside to be read at night a few pages at a time in lieu of a sleeping pill or, better still, in the morning so as to provide a subject for reflection while traveling to school.

The occasional reader should be warned, of course, that one of the major difficulties of this enterprise lies in the oblique allusions which Aristotle makes to the doctrines of other writers—often to Plato who is introduced under various guises as, for instance, in chapter 4 of Book I, where a sentence commencing "Now some think" refers, as the translator (reliably, I hope) informs us, to Aristotle's illustrious predecessor. Reference is also made to "the Sophists," many of whose doctrines must be gleaned from the faded quicksilver at the back of the Aristotelian or Platonic mirror, but who appear to have been professional dispensers of practical wisdom. The term "Sophist" was an epithet designating a wide variety of positions which diverged from that of the School and which probably dif-

fered amongst themselves to the same extent as contemporary opinion—designated or damned under such broad labels as "conservative" and "radical."

To return to our question (whether Aristotle did or did not advocate a thoroughgoing dual system of education), I must confess that, after doing my homework, I was still unable to come to a clear and definite conclusion on this matter. While the quotation from the *Politics*, above, is specific so far as it goes, the *Ethics* orchestrates the theme that the ideal state is one that creates the necessary conditions for the good (just) life of its citizens, and that education must be designed to serve this political and social ideal. Although there is clear indication that Aristotle recognizes the impossibility of each and every individual's attaining the good life even under optimum political and social conditions, and though there are a number of snide remarks about the boorish and debilitating effects of engaging in the arts and crafts and (especially) in the pursuit of wealth, no clear prescription emerges for a dual system of specialized education corresponding to a presumed pattern of innate or acquired differences between people.

One additional piece of evidence which, perhaps, I ought to have cited earlier is the famous or infamous indorsement of slavery in the early part of the first Book of the *Politics*. An excursion into Greek history would be necessary in order to ascertain precisely how slaves were recruited and what rights, under law and custom, they did or did not possess at this point in the development of Athenian democracy, but I suppose that the ultimate, inescapable fact of ownership is probably sufficient to validate the judgment that Aristotle's acceptance of this institution was a moral blemish of major proportions. If one did not have direct evidence, both from observation and introspection, of the wayward and contradictory habits of the human soul, it would be virtually impossible to believe that the same man wrote the *Ethics* and (most of) the *Politics*. Worse yet, from the point of view of an apologist for Aristotle, acceptance of slavery was not a universal, intuitively obvious postulate of Athenian society which Aristotle simply affirmed unquestioningly. Evidence that some intellectual opposition to that institution was in being is contained in chapter 3 of Book I where the philosopher mentions "others" who "affirm that the rule of a master over slaves is contrary to nature" (1253^{b}, 20).

If these passages were not penned by the substitute teacher, then we must clearly interpret Aristotle's doctrine on education as applying to the rearing and upbringing of *citizens*. To the extent that citizens and noncitizens were to be given different sorts of training, though Aristotle does not seem explicitly to have discussed the curriculum for noncitizens, a dual system exists and our question is answered.

But even if we restrict the question to the education of citizens, the in-

dorsement of slavery inferentially opens up still other possibilities. If the philosopher sanctioned the master-vs.-slave distinction as based on the natures of the individuals involved, would he not also have indorsed other curriculum distinctions within the citizen class as a whole? Or are we to interpret his various remarks about the overwhelming importance of habituation and wise laws in forming the character of the citizenry (this is from the text of the *Ethics* in the main) as a plea for relatively free access to the benefits conferred by the best scheme of education it is possible to devise?

The topic is, I think, worthy of examination. However, the answers to this and related questions cannot be had through the diluted media of commentaries (including this one), textbooks, and secondary sources. There is no substitute for close scrutiny of original sources. In such an enterprise one must be willing, candor compels acknowledgment, to read and reread the difficult passages which must, so to speak, be ascended vertically with rope and pickax but the understanding of which is essential if the reader is to penetrate into the unknown lands beyond. After a while a plateau is reached from which distant peaks, hitherto indistinct and unattainable, appear near at hand, each in its proper order. Though this, too, is in part illusion, a journey toward the far mountains is now possible.

But one may well ask, as the current colloquialism goes, "Is this trip necessary?" By way of response, let me quote a few paragraphs from a recent speech of William S. Carlson, president of the State University of New York, delivered at the Eighth National Conference on Higher Education in March of this year at Chicago, Illinois. Entitled "The Challenge to Higher Education," not all these remarks are immediately applicable to the problem at hand, but they provide background and text for the concluding portions of my essay.

> I cannot see a cogent reason to assume that an engineer, let us say, must be only a partially educated man. Our society calls the best young minds into professional specialties. These minds will respond as always to the delights and the liberalizing power of literature, art, music, poetry. They can be released into a wider circle of life beyond themselves and the preoccupations of their specialities through participation in the history of mankind. They will find the deepest pleasure in a study of geography and geology, and thus make the earth their own possession. They can learn languages in such a way as to make the past live again and to bring them close to the minds and hearts of alien peoples. Their understanding of human origin and destiny can be enhanced through the sciences and philosophy. They will be religious men, too, and thus grow in spirit and firmly establish their identity with divinity. . . .
>
> The time is urgent. Civilizations lead a precarious existence, as Toynbee, Spengler, and others remind us. They have their ups and downs—they rise, flourish, and pass away. They do not necessarily last forever, and they are certainly not self-perpetuating. Rome and Babylon, Persia and Egypt, Greece and Syria;—these have all had their day and have passed off the great stage of history. . . .
>
> Is our own Western civilization, too,

marked for extinction? Who can say? We need only to remind ourselves that in the early centuries of the Christian era our ancestors squandered their rich cultural birthright, and it was the Arabians who preserved for us the writings of the ancient Greek philosophers and scientists.

Of this much we can be sure: a civilization retains its lease on life through the members who compose it. No civilization can attain greater heights than the quality of its membership allows. *Persons* are the bearers of civilization. As the strength and quality of persons change, so too will the ability of a civilization to respond adequately to challenges thrust upon it. The character or temperament of nations is not a fixed entity. It can develop or it can degenerate. And not the least among the forces which determine the character of a people is the education to which it has been exposed. Education ultimately molds the national and—hopefully—the international, character.

At least two sorts of influences emanate from the works of writers who form the main stream and the principal tributaries of Western thought. To discuss these influences in the way in which they present themselves to our apprehension, there is, first of all, the net product or the distilled essence of the stream as it has been carried along and preserved in contemporary discussion. In other words, there is the vital remainder of the Aristotelian or the Platonic or (now that he is no longer here to defend himself) the Deweyan tradition as it appears in the works and deeds of those now living. From a narrow technical point of view, there is no need to repair to the original, for what is worth while has been re-created in appropriately altered form in the books and pamphlets written by modern writers for present-day readers; what has been lost from view deserves the obscurity which has overtaken it and is of interest only to specialized students of, for example, the history of philosophy or the history of biology. (Aristotle was one of the first systematic biologists; he conducted extensive empirical investigations in that field as recorded, for instance, in *De partibus animalium*. It is a gross error to regard Aristotle as a speculative, abstract philosopher pure and simple, even though the early medieval theologians, who appear not to have had access to, or interest in, his scientific works, enshrined him in that role. But, of course, we have passed so far beyond him that, to a modern teacher of high-school biology, these treatises would be merely a quaint collection of primitive errors.)

The second type of influence that can be generated by the works of a major writer lies in the immediate impact of the source itself. His works are able to speak through the intervening veil of the centuries directly to the mind and heart of the modern reader. A voyage of rediscovery to the headwaters of the stream is necessary, not only to reinterpret the past, but also to provide guidance for the present. And this, after all, is the main justification of the search for knowledge: that through these works we are better able to understand ourselves and our times and to appreciate both the flexibility and the permanency of the human spirit.

PROCTER THOMSON

Teachers To Help Korean Schools

American teachers, who through the Overseas Teacher Fund of the National Education Association, aided teachers in devastated countries after World War II, now are waging a campaign to assist the teachers of Korea. Under authorization by the NEA Representative Assembly, the Overseas Teacher Fund has been reactivated to assist the Korean teachers, who must have immediate, direct help if they are to continue their brave task of carrying on education in the very midst of war.

The need is extreme. Tents, flimsy wooden barracks, even open fields are serving as schools. Even when classes are taught in school buildings, classrooms are unheated in winter. The goal of the campaign is to provide funds for new, warm clothing for men and women teachers in Korea. The distribution will be made through CARE, and contributions must be obtained as soon as possible to enable CARE to assemble, transport, and distribute supplies to the Korean teachers when their schools open in August.

Twenty dollars will cover the cost of a ready-made suit or materials sufficient for a suit and other clothing for teachers who prefer to make their own garments. But any amount is acceptable. Money may be sent to the Overseas Teacher Fund through your state association or directly to the National Education Association.

Representative Yearbooks of 1952–53

Educators have learned to look for the stimulating ideas presented in the yearbooks which are published by some of the national professional organizations. Short descriptions of a few of the 1952–53 yearbooks are given in the following pages.

Basic elements for learning Early in November the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association published its yearbook on *Bases for Effective Learning*. The purpose of the yearbook, which offers a wide sampling of new ideas and current practices in elementary education reported by active members of the profession throughout the country, is to promote understanding of what underlies and buttresses effective learning and teaching procedures. The book points out that today's educators know more than ever before about child growth and development and that the basic function of a dynamic school program is to use this knowledge in providing for the total emotional, social, physical, and intellectual growth and development of the child.

One chapter reports a study showing that teachers and pupils were happier and more satisfied when they had a voice in school policy-making. Other chapters, highlighting effective procedures now being used, deal with the principal as leader and pace-setter,

school-community relations (techniques, public relations, use of human resources), the well-adjusted classroom teacher, the well-adjusted child, adjusting methods to children's needs, and the physical environment.

The yearbook is available from the office of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association, Washington 6, D.C., at $3.00 a copy.

Changes in society and in schools

Schools change as society changes, and those who plan the school curriculum today must constantly seek the kinds of improvements that will prepare all boys and girls to live and operate more effectively and efficiently in a free society. This is the basic theme of the 1953 Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, which is entitled *American School Curriculum.*

The authors, a commission of nine prominent educators and one newspaper reporter, review the entire field of modern curriculum development, pointing up the roles played by pupils, teachers, the home, and the community. They describe many teaching innovations developed in recent years in the nation's elementary and secondary schools.

In releasing the volume to the press, AASA Executive Secretary Worth McClure stated that the entire commission report was written within the framework of the free-enterprise point of view. The first chapter tells what American schools are for. Other chapters of the publication deal with how children learn and grow, mobilizing to improve curriculums, curriculum developments in elementary and secondary schools, better aids to instruction, building public understanding, and appraising classroom achievement and the school's total impact.

The commission reminds school administrators and classroom teachers that the public is deeply concerned with the question, "How well are our schools doing?" Tomorrow's schools will do well to accumulate the evidence that will enable them to answer this question, not only to satisfy the public, but for their own guidance in continued improvement. The commission describes some newly developed methods of measuring results.

This yearbook may be purchased from the office of the American Association of School Administrators, Washington 6, D.C., at $5.00 a copy.

Analysis of education in our culture

The 1953 yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Forces Affecting American Education,* will be helpful to laymen and educators alike as they work together in developing better educational programs for youth. The yearbook is the result of a two-year study by a committee appointed by the Association. It takes stock of the nation's provisions for public education at mid-century and describes the "forces,"

good and bad, affecting schools in this country today.

The report emphasizes that educational leadership is a tough, rugged business in our country at the present time. Education must "keep pace with or resist" certain major influences in modern life. It must react to today's mode of living. It must react to findings of research and the expanded use of communications. Education also must protect itself against groups of people representing vested interests while it co-operates with others sincerely trying to give constructive assistance.

The report warns that a special-interest group speaking about American education does not represent the people:

> As soon as they know, the people always stand against these special interests which would influence the schools unduly, or capture them or destroy them.
>
> It is the business of all educational workers to so work with all citizens that all know the educational score every moment of the time. The people represent the only bulwark of defense and support available to the public schools.

Urging better community participation in the schools, the report says:

> We have patchwork programs of community relations and participation across the country. Public education will operate under a formidable handicap until we throw our real weight behind an all-out program of information and participation in the business of public education for the whole of the American people.

Orders for this yearbook may be sent to the Association for Curriculum Development, National Education Association, Washington 6, D.C.

Two parts of NSSE yearbook The 1953 yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education comprises two volumes, each of which deals with a major problem of peculiar significance in relation to current social movements.

Part I of this yearbook discusses the instructional program at the high-school level. The chief concern of the volume is directly indicated by the title, *Adapting the Secondary-School Program to the Needs of Youth*. Recognizing the emerging concept of human needs as the basic factor in the determination of educational objectives, this yearbook describes effective methods of identifying the needs of youth and of translating those needs into appropriate teaching goals. Practical suggestions are given for guiding the learning experiences of youth, for constructing programs of learning calculated to meet both the common needs of all young people and the unique requirements of particular individuals of high-school age, and for evaluating the progress of students toward the satisfaction of their recognized needs. Consideration is given to adjustments that are required in teacher-education programs in order to prepare secondary-school teachers for participation in the preparation of suitable programs for youth as well as for more satisfactory professional service as faculty members of modern high schools.

Part II of the present yearbook of this Society is entitled *The Community School*. In this volume, too, the emphasis is on one of the challenging aspects of current educational philosophy, namely, identifying the aims of education with the improvement of community life. In this treatise the community school is defined as one that offers suitable educational opportunities to all age groups and selects appropriate learning experiences from the unsolved problems of community enterprises. The yearbook describes stimulating examples of successful community-improvement projects in which the school program was adjusted to the requirements of responsible participation in community-centered movements in behalf of the economic as well as the cultural welfare of all population groups. This volume is a valuable aid to teachers in training as well as to teachers in service and members of the faculties of schools and colleges.

The two volumes of this yearbook are available on order to the University of Chicago Press at $3.50 for each volume in cloth binding, or $2.75 in paper covers.

Annual Conference on Reading

The Sixteenth Annual Conference on Reading will be held at the University of Chicago on June 29 through July 2, 1953. The theme of the conference is "Corrective Reading in Classroom and Clinic." Attention will be focused on the responsibility of the classroom teacher and of the reading clinic in meeting the needs of students who are not reading in harmony with their potentialities, and ways of meeting this challenge will be examined. Special attention will be given to corrective reading at the secondary-school and college levels.

The opening session will be of great interest to all teachers, for Professor William S. Gray, of the University of Chicago, will report on the study of methods of teaching reading in all parts of the world which he is now conducting for UNESCO. Following his presentation, "Problems of Corrective Reading in American Schools" will be discussed by Helen M. Robinson, University of Chicago. The subsequent general sessions on June 29 and 30 will be concerned with:

Identifying Readers Who Need Corrective Instruction, Mary C. Austin, Western Reserve University

Factors Which Produce Defective Reading, George D. Spache, University of Florida

Diagnosis of Reading Difficulties, Albert J. Harris, Queens College, Flushing, New York

Each of the foregoing sessions will be followed by sectional meetings especially planned for high-school and college teachers, in which these problems will be considered:

Discovering Retarded Readers

In High-School, Ellen Bass, York Community High School, Elmhurst, Illinois

In College, James M. McCallister, Dean, Herzl Branch, Chicago City Junior College

Eliminating Obstacles to Effective Reading

In High-School, HAROLD J. PERRY, Reading Instructor, Highland Park High School, Highland Park, Illinois

In College, MARVIN GLOCK, Cornell University

Methods for Diagnosing Specific Reading Problems

In High School, LILLIAN G. FLETCHER, Psychologist, Division of Child Study, Chicago Public Schools

In College, DOROTHY KENDALL BRACKEN, Southern Methodist University

On July 1 and 2 the emphasis will be placed on methods of correcting reading difficulties, appropriate materials, and selection of books for voluntary reading. The final presentation will project the entire problem of corrective reading into the future. The general sessions will consider the following:

Methods of Correcting Reading Difficulties, RUSSELL G. STAUFFER, University of Delaware

Criteria for Selecting Materials and Instruments for Corrective Reading, A. STERL ARTLEY, University of Missouri

Recent Advances in Providing Books and Corrective Materials for Retarded Readers, MARION A. ANDERSON, Elementary Editor, Ginn & Company

Characteristics of Books for Voluntary Reading in a Corrective Program, FRANCES HENNE, University of Chicago

The sectional meetings which follow the presentations listed above will include:

Developing Word Recognition and Meaning Vocabulary

In High School, MILDRED LETTON, Laboratory School, University of Chicago

In College, JAMES REED, Wayne University

Improving Comprehension and Developing Appropriate Reading Rates

In High School, KERMIT DEHL, Oak Park and River Forest High School, Oak Park, Illinois

In College, LEONE M. BURFIELD, University of Chicago

Using Materials and Instruments in a Corrective Reading Program

In High School, JEAN MCCLELLAND, Lyons Township High School, La Grange, Illinois

In College, MARTHA M. GESLING, Bowling Green State University

Selecting Books for Reluctant Readers

In High School, BLANCHE JANECEK, Laboratory School, University of Chicago

In College, PATRICIA KNAPP, George Williams College, Chicago

The final presentation before the general session will be a treatment of "New Frontiers in Corrective Reading" by William Kottmeyer, assistant superintendent of schools in St. Louis.

A discussion for administrators and supervisors on Wednesday evening, July 1, will consider "Planning, Organizing, and Administering a Corrective Reading Program in High School." The chairman, Professor William S. Gray, will be assisted by a panel of experts. On the same evening, Dr. George D. Spache will chairman a panel which will be concerned with the same topic as it applies to colleges.

All classroom and remedial-reading teachers as well as administrative officers are cordially invited to at-

tend the conference. Requests for the detailed program, information concerning fees, rooming facilities, and registration procedures should be addressed to Mrs. Helen M. Robinson, Department of Education, University of Chicago.

Guidance and Personnel Conference

The Seventeenth Annual Conference on Guidance and Personnel Services in Schools, Colleges, and Related Institutions will be held Thursday and Friday, June 25 and 26, 1953, at the University of Chicago. The conference will be patterned as a workshop and will deal with a critique of techniques now available to counselors in handling problems of children and youth. Communications concerning this conference should be directed to Robert C. Woellner, Administration Building, University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Illinois.

Chicago Workshop on Community Human Relations

The Second Annual Chicago Workshop on Community Human Relations will be offered by the Department of Education of the University of Chicago and the Chicago Commission on Human Relations on July 27 through August 14, 1953, at the University of Chicago. Although the workshop is designed primarily for citizen leaders in the Chicago community, its purposes and unique design may be of interest to our readers.

The workshop is offered as a result of experiences which show that the checking of deterioration in large cities requires the participation of substantial numbers of citizens. The problems to which the workshop addresses itself are: What kind of participation is required? How can it be obtained? What other services must be co-ordinated with it?

To answer these questions requires analysis of the particular forces operating in the deteriorating area, skills in group participation and involvement techniques, and strategic planning of programs for action and adult education.

During the workshop an effort is made to derive, from group dynamics, sociology, education, and other sciences, useful principles for community practitioners. Because of the pioneering nature of the training design, the workshop is studied with the help of the National Training Laboratory in Group Development.

The planning committee for the workshop consists of Herbert Thelen, Human Dynamics Laboratory of the Department of Education, University of Chicago; William C. Bradbury, of the University Committee on Education, Training, and Research in Race Relations, Department of Sociology; and Eleanor Dungan, director of education of the Chicago Commission on Human Relations.

Who's Who for May

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by Procter Thomson, assistant professor of education and of economics at the University of Chicago. Pauline M. Alt, associate professor of education and psychology at the Teachers College of Connecticut, New Britain, Connecticut, reports a study which compared body build and personality traits and suggests that the findings have implications for the treatment of students as individuals. Wallace J. Howell, principal of Southside High School, Elmira, New York, demonstrates that adolescents in high school and the early years of college have poor work-study skills, and he suggests ways of improving these skills. John X. Jamrich, dean of students and professor of education at Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa, reports a survey of 512 teacher-education institutions in which information was sought on various aspects of general-methods courses as taught in these institutions. The article by Peyton Jacob, president emeritus of Georgia Southwestern College, who has died since the preparation of this manuscript, surveys the junior-college system in Georgia, discussing historical developments, distinctive features, and merits and inadequacies, and points out the implications for the junior college on a nation-wide scale. A list of selected references on educational psychology is presented by Ernest A. Haggard, associate professor of psychology and of education at the University of Chicago; Margaret Poznak, member of the editorial staff of the Department of Education Publications at the same institution; and Kenneth D. Norberg, associate professor of education and co-ordinator of audio-visual services at Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California.

Reviewers of books Paul W. Harnly, director of secondary education in the public schools at Wichita, Kansas. Augusta Jameson, director of Associated Consultants in Education, Western Springs, Illinois. Karl C. Garrison, professor of education at the University of Georgia. Dorothy McClure Fraser, associate professor of education at Adelphi College, Garden City, New York. Stanley E. Dimond, professor of education at the University of Michigan.

RELATIONSHIP OF PHYSIQUE AND TEMPERAMENT

PAULINE M. ALT
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HUMAN PERSONALITY is a diverting subject for study. It leads its students to consider one phase, then another; to find one clear facet only to note that the new obliterates the old and that much confusion follows. However, one point of interest which seems to have persisted since early times is the study of the relationship of physique and temperament.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE STUDY

The father of medicine, Hippocrates, had a notion that the kinds of disease toward which his patients were predisposed was linked with the individual body build. The constitutional type, *Habitus phthisicus*, he described as linear, undeveloped, and delicate and susceptible to tuberculosis. On the other hand, his *Habitus apoplecticus* was thick, strong, and muscular, and vulnerable to apoplexy. He also believed these types varied temperamentally as well as physically.[1]

In modern times, many students—among them Rostand, Gall, and Sigaud in France;[2] di Giovanni and Viola in Italy;[3] and Kretchmer[4] in Germany—have reported investigations of body types and their relation to personality.

In America two outstanding contemporary studies, those of Sheldon[5] and that of the Department of Hygiene of Harvard University[6] have appeared. The latter group of workers found significant correlations between physique, on the one hand, and personality, interests, and vocation, on the other.

[1] Hippocrates, *On Ancient Medicine: The Genuine Works of Hippocrates*. Translated by Francis Adams. New York: Wm. Wood & Co., 1886.

[2] Claude Sigaud, *Les origines de la maladie*. Paris: A. Maloine, 1912.

[3] G. Viola, *Le legge de correlazione morfologica dei tippi individuali*. Padova, 1909.

[4] E. Kretchmer, *Physique and Character*. Translated from the second German edition by W. J. H. Sprott. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1925.

[5] *a*) W. H. Sheldon, S. S. Stevens, and W. B. Tucker, *The Varieties of Human Physique*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1940.

b) W. H. Sheldon and S. S. Stevens, *The Varieties of Temperament*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942.

[6] C. W. Heath, *What People Are: A Study of Normal Young Men*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1945.

SHELDON'S STUDY

Since Sheldon's work was the chief source of inspiration for the study reported here, his ideas will be described in some detail. His primary objective was to determine the pattern of relationship between physique and temperament. He discovered, as had Kretchmer, that it was not possible to classify the majority of individuals into three definite types but rather that the measurement of each trait on a continuum seemed feasible. Most individuals are not clear body types but are mixtures of types. Sheldon devised a new plan based on the use of photographs, which permitted the investigator to judge a large number of individuals with comparative ease and from three directions simultaneously. Three components resulted from Sheldon's study.

The first component, *endomorphy*, is dominant in those persons who have large, highly developed inner organs (viscera) but underdeveloped external body structures (somatic structures), who tend to put on fat, and whose bodies are characterized by a smooth roundness, without prominent bones or muscles.

The *mesomorphs*, those high in the second component, show superior development of the muscles, bones, and connective tissues. Persons possessing this trait have a militaristic posture and an athletic bearing.

When the third component, *ectomorphy*, dominates, the individual is fragile, linear, and delicate. As Sheldon puts it: "The ectomorph is biologically 'extroverted' as the endomorph is biologically 'introverted.' "[7] These are the opposites of the *personality* characteristics assigned to these two types.

When the judgments made according to this system are complete, the individual is assigned an index of three numbers; the first refers to his rating with respect to endomorphy; the second, to mesomorphy; and the third, to ectomorphy. For example, an index of 711 (read *seven-one-one*) indicates the most extreme endomorph; 171, the most extreme mesomorph, and 117, the most extreme ectomorph. An index of 444 indicates a person who is average in all three components.

To find out what components are present in temperament, Sheldon used factor analysis of the ratings of two hundred young men who had been studied and typed according to body build. These ratings were derived from a scale of sixty traits which Sheldon considered to be less influenced by cultural or social environment than others. Through factor analysis he found the traits which formed clusters at three vertices of a triangle. Each of the twenty traits in each of the three clusters had high correlations with others in the cluster, but the intercorrelations with traits in other clusters were low. The range for the former was .61 to .87; for the latter, it was −.30 to −.74.[8]

Each cluster describes one type of

[7] W. H. Sheldon and S. S. Stevens, *op. cit.*, p. 8.

[8] *Ibid.*, Appendix 4.

temperament. The cluster named *viscerotonia* is the first component. In its extreme manifestations it is characterized by general relaxation of the body as a whole; love of comfort; sociophilia (love of a social environment); greed for food, friends, and affection; and general subservience to the digestive tract.

The second component is called *somatotonia*. It is described in terms of activities of an athletic nature, bodily assertiveness, motivation organization, vigor, aggressiveness, executive ability, and similar traits.

Cerebrotonia, the third component, indicates the predominance of the element of restraint in posture and movement, in social intercourse, in public address, and in all aspects of life involving people.[9]

Indices for temperament, when correlated with those for physique, showed statistically significant relationships. Viscerotonia was related positively to endomorphy but negatively to both mesomorphy and ectomorphy. Somatotonia correlated positively with mesomorphy but negatively with the other two components. Cerebrotonia, in like manner, correlated with ectomorphy positively but with the other components negatively. These results suggest that common elements exist in physique and temperament.[10]

The forgoing accounts of the study of "man as a whole" attest to the complexity of the problem. The subject is an important one in the fields of education, psychology, guidance, psychiatry, medicine, and other social sciences.

A NEW APPROACH

For many years, teachers and psychologists used the inductive method in exploring human behavior in order to discover the universal elements of personality. Teachers held that certain rules could be applied to all children, and that it was necessary to bring them all up to standard. However, the individual differences continued to shine through all these efforts and to distract all concerned.

Today, students of the subject, including Sheldon, agree that the most salient feature of human nature is the individuality of each member of the human race and that these differences may be measured on a continuum. There is a growing need to understand these differences and to invent new methods for appraising them. The work involved in using the present methods, which rely largely on tests, interviews, and questionnaires, is tremendous in view of the small yield in information.

PURPOSE OF THE PRESENT STUDY

A relatively untapped source of fairly accessible data about human personality should be found in the experiences of the classroom teacher, who sees his charges over a period of one or more years and has opportunities to know some of his students very well. The writer explored the possibility of using these experiences, com-

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 26.

[10] *Ibid.*, p. 400.

bined with data from the cumulative records of the school in a study which sought to verify the findings of Sheldon. The following additional procedures were used:

1. The ages of the subjects ranged from 13–5 to 16–5.
2. Three anthropologists, skilled in somatotyping (classifying body build with respect to endomorphy, mesomorphy, and ectomorphy) rated the physique.
3. The teachers and students of the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago rated the temperament.

One of the chief criticisms of Sheldon's work is that the ratings of both physique and temperament were made by the same person, resulting in a possible "halo effect," whereby the temperament was rated in favor of the anticipated behavior of a person with a certain constitution. In view of this criticism and of the need for studying temperament at the adolescent age level, the present work was undertaken.

The definition of "constitution" for the study was taken from Sheldon. It refers to "those aspects of the individual which are relatively more fixed and unchanging" (body build, physiology, endocrine function, etc.), "contrasted with those aspects which are relatively more . . . susceptible to modification by environmental pressures, i.e., habits, social attitudes, education, etc."[11] Temperament refers to "the dynamics of the individual . . . the level of the personality just above physiological function and below acquired attitudes and beliefs. It is the level where basic patterns of motivation manifest themselves."[12]

PROCEDURE

The ninth- and tenth-grade boys of the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago, 116 in number, were assigned somatotype ratings obtained from photographs. Temperament ratings were obtained from a check list devised for the purpose and incorporating many ideas derived from Sheldon's descriptions.[13] The judges were instructed to rate each individual on each of the items, using a five-point scale. The numeral *1* was used to describe a person who never, or almost never, manifested a specific behavior; its antithesis was *5;* and *2*, *3*, and *4* were intermediate values.

The twenty-eight traits used in the check list were:

VISCEROTONIA

Relaxation in posture and movement
Slow reaction time
Love of polite ceremony
Sociophilia (love of a social environment)
Indiscriminate amiability
Greed for affection and approval
Tolerance
Complacency
Free communication of feeling, extroversion in the sense that the person expresses his emotions to anyone present

SOMATOTONIA

Assertiveness of posture and movement
Love of dominating, lust for power

[11] W. H. Sheldon, S. S. Stevens, and W. B. Tucker, *op. cit.*, p. 2.

[12] W. H. Sheldon and S. S. Stevens, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

[13] *Ibid.*, pp. 31–94.

Bold directness of manner
Competitive aggressiveness
Psychological callousness
Unrestrained voice
General noisiness
Overmaturity of appearance
Horizontal mental cleavage, extroversion in the sense that the person is much concerned with what is going on around him rather than with his "subconscious"

CEREBROTONIA

Restraint in posture and movement
Overly fast reactions
Mental overintensity, hyperattentionality
Self-conscious motility of eyes and face
Sociophobia (dislike of social contacts)
Inhibited social address
Resistance to habit and poor routinizing
Vocal restraint and general restraint of noise
Youthful intentness of manner and appearance
Vertical mental cleavage, introspection.

In constructing the check list, a series of descriptive items for each of the traits was developed. A few of these items will serve to illustrate the procedure.

ASSERTIVENESS OF POSTURE AND MOVEMENT

16. Shows conspicuous readiness of body for action
25. Carries trunk erect, spinal column straight
64. Uses vigorous gestures of head and hands in ordinary conversation, especially when perturbed
73. Seems to have muscles "set" for action though not strained

SOCIOPHILIA

19. Seeks companionship of others
28. Attracts others to him to share news of the day or material goods which he makes available
67. Prefers to work in group rather than alone
106. Participates in informal gatherings before class begins

In order to determine which items correlated highly, cards bearing the ratings were processed by the edge-marking method of analysis.[14] Those items in the check list which were intercorrelated and which described a specific trait were grouped to form clusters. This was one way of determining whether the original grouping of items used in the construction was valid. For example, eight items were constructed to describe relaxation. These, when examined by the edge-marking method, were found to be highly correlated. Therefore, each individual's scores on these items were averaged to form the score for the attribute of relaxation. Finally, each component of physique was correlated by the product-moment method with each trait value.

Each boy was judged by two or more judges, usually by a teacher and a fellow-student or by two teachers. The consistency of the judges' ratings was computed by pairing any two ratings for one trait for each child and then applying the Pearson correlation formula. Reliability coefficients in the neighborhood of .60 resulted. The coefficients would have been much higher if the scattergram had included more temperaments and somatotypes at the extremes of the distributions. Variation between any two judges was seldom more than one-half point on the rating scale.

[14] L. L. Thurstone, *The Edge-marking Method of Analyzing Data*. New York: Psychological Corporation.

When the scoring was complete and the ratings of the teachers on each item were averaged for each child, some of the items in an original cluster of traits did not correlate highly with some of the others. In such cases, two or more subgroups were formed. The complete profile for a particular subject, then, consisted of assessments on thirty-seven traits of temperament, as well as the index of physique. By correlating each of these with the three body types, a set of 111 correlation coefficients was obtained.

TABLE 1

SIGNIFICANT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TRAITS OF PHYSIQUE AND TEMPERAMENT

Trait	Endomorphy		Mesomorphy		Ectomorphy	
	Coefficient	Level of Confidence	Coefficient	Level of Confidence	Coefficient	Level of Confidence
Relaxation	.44	1%	−.29	1%	−.35	1%
Assertiveness	−.31	1%	.26	1%	.....	.....
Tension*	−.35	1%	.....	.....	.45	1%
Tendency to be inconspicuous*	−.27	1%	.....	.....	.32	1%
Slow reaction	.20	5%	.....	.....	.....	.....
Sensitivity of face†	−.37	1%	.....	.....	.37	1%
Alertness of eyes†	−.24	1%	.....	.....	.22	2%
Greed for affection	.....	.....	−.19	5%	.....	.....
Vocal restraint, general restraint of noise	.....	.....	−.35	1%	.....	.....
Overmaturity of face	.....	.....	.29	1%	.....	.....
Extroversion of somatotonia (mental cleavage)	.....	.....	.19	5%	.....	.....
Introversion	.....	.....	.....	.....	.25	1%

* Subdivision of the trait originally listed as "restraint in posture."
† Subdivision of the trait originally listed as "self-conscious motility of eyes and face."

RESULTS

Of the 111 coefficients of correlation between the three physical components and each of the traits of temperament, fifteen were significant at the 1 per cent level of confidence, one at the 2 per cent level, and three at the 5 per cent level. Table 1 shows these correlations and their levels of significance.

Nine of the fifteen significant correlations are among the first three traits of temperament listed in the table. This fact partially supports the contention that these traits form a configuration with three vertices. Relaxation is positively correlated with endomorphy and negatively correlated with mesomorphy and ectomorphy. In like manner, assertiveness is positively correlated with mesomorphy and negatively with endomorphy, but it does not show the expected negative relation with ectomorphy. The third vertex of the triangle has two subgroups and shows positive correlation with ectomorphy. The other coefficients in Table 1 may be similarly interpreted.

TEMPERAMENT AS RELATED TO BODY BUILD

Following is a description of the temperament of an extreme case in each of the categories of physical structure. These characteristics are found to a much less degree in most individuals. Furthermore, these sketches are not clear cut, since the low obtained correlations merely point to slight tendencies in favor of the relationships.

The endomorph.—When compared with individuals high in the other components, the endomorph is likely to be more relaxed in posture and bearing and to be slow in reaction time. He is unlikely to show tenseness or vigorous and spontaneous shift into action. He speaks deliberately and ponderously. His face is bland, smooth, and neither sensitive nor rugged. The characteristics of the endomorph, with the exception of those just mentioned, are most difficult to distinguish, and, therefore, fewer positive correlations appeared in this category.

The mesomorph.—An individual with a predominance of mesomorphy tends to be dynamic and energetic. He is ready to indulge in any kind of physical exercise at any time and is inclined to be assertive and dominant. He forges ahead roughshod and is disinterested in the opinion or approval of others. His appearance suggests that of a much older person, and his face has a tendency to be rugged and hard. Many extroverts are of this group. They are likely to show leadership qualities and good executive ability, to hold office, and to speak their ideas with no hesitation. A somatotonic comes to decisions directly and carries out his plans with efficiency, dispatch, and aplomb. He takes the initiative in approaching people and makes friends easily.

The ectomorph.—The ectomorph is a comparatively tense person. He never relaxes in the sense that the endomorph does. His various movements in ordinary conversation are spasmodic, reflexive, and generally unassertive. When he is working alone, these traits are less pronounced. He talks so fast that his words are jumbled, and so low that one must lend a very attentive ear to hear him. In conversation, he uses many fine muscles around his eyes and mouth, thus giving him an expressive countenance. His eyes are alert and indicate keen attention. He tries to come into and go out of a room as noiselessly as possible. He reacts extremely fast and in a jerky manner. Such a person avoids large social groups and would rather work alone than with others. In the presence of many people, he evidences a slight inclination to an inhibited social address, a restrained voice, and pronounced shyness. He is not intolerant of people, but he just does not concern himself with them. He daydreams, but he represses his feelings and is very uncommunicative about his affairs when they pertain to deep inner emotions. These traits classify him as an introvert.

EVALUATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The limitations of this project revolve about the size of the sample and the subjective nature of the judgments of temperament. The need for a larger sample is obvious if those cases are counted which exhibit physical components to a marked degree. It is the extremes of a distribution that are most validly rated, and, if common factors exist, such ratings increase the correlations. Defining an outstanding attribute as that demonstrated by subjects rated constitutionally 4+ and above, the number of cases is only 20 for endomorphy, 46 for mesomorphy, and 24 for ectomorphy. However, it is very likely that the sample used here is more representative of the total population than was Sheldon's, since the circumstances attending selection and admission of boys to the Laboratory School are probably not so stringent as would be true of a university group.

How well the judges know their subjects and how much the halo effect operates to weight scores in a particular direction are two factors that may influence results to a considerable degree. Many of the students had been in the school many years; all but three had attended at least two years. The length of time enrolled and the small classes, coupled with the extensive record system of the school, fostered an uncommon growth of understanding between teachers and pupils. At the same time, the pooling of the assessments of judges counteracted the halo effect. In Sheldon's study the danger of such coloring was possible in two ways: (1) The raters were adept at judging body build. (2) Judges tend to rate those whom they like high on certain traits. This makes evident the need for more than one rater per subject. This error would probably take place in spite of the attempt to eliminate from the study all traits which might have any desirable or undesirable connotations.

The main conclusions inferred from the over-all analysis of this study may be summarized as follows:

1. The technique described here offers a new approach to the study of physique and temperament which overcomes the chief criticisms of Sheldon's work: the lack of independent judgments on the two phases of the ratings and the lack of objectivity in the use of standards and definitions. Consistency was increased by giving six to ten opportunities to judge each individual on one trait. A further advantage lies in the greater amount of information available to the judges and in the naïveté of the judges in procedures of judging the body build.

2. This method, which is more legitimate than others for the reasons discussed above, demonstrates that, at least at the adolescent age level and with the sample group on which the study was based, the conclusions of Sheldon are for a great part unsupported. The correlations that were sizable were generally concerned with the traits describing the functioning of

the body in physical, rather than in social, intellectual, or emotional, activities.

Even though the correlations in this research are small, some are highly significant. The information should contribute to the development of basic knowledge of individual differences, and this in turn should promote better interpersonal relationships. If this is logical, it would be profitable for the classroom teacher to be able to recognize the tendencies that do exist.

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

In an attempt to apply these results to educational situations, the educator thinks of many questions. What are the appropriate methods of working with adolescents so that the individual variations in body type will be given due consideration? If adolescents have natural, constitutionally based tendencies to behave in certain ways, what are the effects of environmental pressures on a person of each type of body structure? How are an adolescent's body type and temperament related to his present interest and his future occupational choice? These questions indubitably suggest further research, but the findings of this study support the thesis that the teacher who is aware of these relationships has a better understanding of the adolescent and the causes of his behavior. By considering constitutional, temperamental, and environmental factors and their relations to interests, emotional and social needs, and vocational choices, the teacher can better adapt the school program to the needs of high-school boys and girls.

In the field of physical education, the mesomorph, with his high endowment of bodily vigor, assertiveness, quick action, etc., makes the best football player. Yet, in many of our schools the game is glorified to the extent that being a player becomes the cherished hope of most of the boys—a hope doomed to be shattered in the majority of cases. At the same time, the football player is at odds with the classroom teacher because he is forced to sit still for what to him seems ages. Provision for the physical activities of youth so that they aspire to a level of achievement commensurate with their ability and can compete with others of similar constitutional build is important for good mental health and offers opportunity for fulfilment of the basic need for accomplishment.

Here are some illustrations, taken from the experience of the writer in observing students in this study. In almost any classroom, one may find bewildered students, who are sensitive to the constant stimuli which impinge upon them at every turn. As one cerebrotonic boy put it, "Can't we do something about all these disturbances? Can't we find a spot where we can work by ourselves?" This boy needs time alone, whereas the somatotonic revels in the confusion in the halls and cafeterias and adds to it and the viscerotonic relaxes and enjoys the scene. Separate projects set

up in the classroom to take care of students who do best in groups and of those who do best alone show wise planning on the part of the teacher.

Two other illustrations may suggest the causes of strained teacher-pupil interaction. Miss Jones performed all tasks quickly, but, despite all her urgings, she could not induce her viscerotonic pupil Sam to move faster, nor would she have been able to do so if an atomic bomb had been about to explode. Miss Jones often spoke softly, but she "meant business." Carl's somatotonic mother, however, expected strict obedience only when she spoke loudly. Carl's accustomed reactions naturally irritated Miss Jones and caused conflict.

The study of many other topics would be of great usefulness and interest. Should discipline be based on somatotype differences? Is it not conceivable that some children require strict, rigid discipline, while others are seriously harmed by such handling? Is the bravado of many aggressive boys a means of overcompensating for the lack of strong, masculine characteristics? Do somatotonics or perhaps persons with mixtures of somatotonia and viscerotonia make the best salesmen? Is social readiness a matter of constitution? Some of our observations point to such relationships as those suggested here.

It seems that, in the effort to develop so-called "well-adjusted" children, the educational world forces them into situations, especially those of a social or athletic nature, for which many have neither relish nor capacity. Is there no respectable status, for example, for the cerebrotonic who likes to work alone? Reflection on the many contributions to our culture which were contrived in solitude answers this question. The correlations of physique and temperament, where the findings are significant, should prompt us to give more consideration to these two aspects of personality structure. Individual needs of adolescents can probably be better met by giving some attention to such variations in our classroom programs as are suggested by the revelations of the study of the constitution and temperament.

WORK-STUDY SKILLS OF ADOLESCENTS IN GRADES VII–XIV

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INTRODUCTION

WORK-STUDY SKILLS are still a slighted area in the development of adolescent youth, both in the junior-senior high school and in the early years of college. Although much has been written on this topic over the last two decades, most of the material is, unfortunately, highly opinionated and is without basic research to substantiate the formulation of generalizations for improvement in these skill areas. Hieronymous (5) forcibly brought this to the attention of the writer as being an area greatly in need of research.

In a study by the writer (6) it was found that instruction in work-study skills did not produce as much growth among children in Grades VII and VIII as it produced in children in Grades IV, V, and VI. This phenomenon furnished the author with the impetus to go into the literature and seek evidence to prove or disprove the hypothesis that poor work-study skills are prevalent in students in the adolescent years of high school and in the early college years. Of the more than one hundred studies examined, only those pertaining directly to the purposes of the present study will be mentioned.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Four major questions governed this study. (1) Are work-study skills a definite problem in the adolescent years of junior and senior high school and the early college years? (2) What are the research findings indicating the developmental trends of work-study skills during the adolescent years? (3) What generalizations can be arrived at, based upon research evidence, that can be used by public school personnel to overcome deficiencies in this important area? (4) What are some of the practical means that teachers, administrators, and supervisors may use to improve work-study skills or habits?

ARE WORK-STUDY SKILLS A PROBLEM?

Many psychologists in recent writings have mentioned the implications of work-study habits and skills and the part that these skills play in developing a well-adjusted personality. Snygg and Combs (11: 240) recently asserted that the learning of any skill or item of subject matter is accom-

panied by the formation of attitudes (which may be desirable or undesirable) by the pupil toward the subject, toward school, toward his teacher, toward adults, toward society, and toward himself. As a result, *how* subject matter is taught may be even more important than *what* is taught. Skills are better retained and more often used if they are learned under conditions similar to those in which they will be used.

Pennington and Berg (**8**: 154), in their recent book on clinical psychology, claim that much of the difficulty at the higher levels results from improper learning or failure to learn earlier fundamental processes.

Louttit (**7**: 172), another clinical psychologist, states that inefficient habits of work, especially at the junior and senior high school or college levels, are frequently a significant reason for failure.

Stroud (**13**: 372–74) says that one can, by practice, improve his performance in nearly all learning activities. Strang (**12**) concurs with Stroud by stating that discovering how to study demands motivation, information, and application.

Symonds (**14**) in a study of life problems and interests of adolescents found that, among six problems listed in the order of importance, study habits was fourth.

Because of the psychological importance of work-study habits and skills, public school personnel should accept the challenge and attempt to improve these skills as they strive to develop the well-rounded personalities of adolescent youth.

REVIEW OF RELEVANT RESEARCH FINDINGS

A careful survey of the literature published over the last twenty-five years reveals that work-study habits have been considered to be a real problem, not only by the adolescent population, but also by many of the writers. It is, therefore, strange that so little has been done in a statistically reliable way to discover useful methods of training students to study. This can be verified by reference to Ellefson's résumé of experimental findings written in 1930 (**4**), in which he mentions the attempt to help students study by administrative adjustment of time and place (supervised study or the divided period). When this did not prove successful, questionnaires, interviews, written statements by students, analysis of student schedules, observation of student activities, and case studies were used to determine areas of study-habits need. Such things as daily lesson units and unit assignments and such reading problems as vocabulary, selecting the main points, seeing relations, outlining, summarizing, and evaluating were also mentioned by Ellefson as possible areas of improvement.

Fifteen years later Traxler (**15**), summarizing the literature in this area, found practically the same conditions existing as did Ellefson—too much verbalization and not enough experimentation. Nevertheless, the

studies surveyed by Traxler showed evidence (since verified by the writer's study) that, left to their own devices, pupils do not improve significantly in study habits after the early grades in the elementary school.

DEVELOPMENTAL TRENDS

Certain studies can be cited to reveal this flattening-out in the improvement of work-study skills throughout the adolescent years. In the writer's study, results on the Iowa Every-Pupil Test of Basic Skills showed that little gain was made in the area of work-study skills by 117 pupils in Grades VII and VIII, even after fifteen work units in this area had been presented to them.

Cuff (2), working with 1,250 pupils in Grades IV-XII in Kentucky and using a question list of the 75 most commonly advocated items, found that methods of study apparently crystallize in the elementary-school grades and do not, as a rule, improve appreciably thereafter.

Wilson (16), working with 837 pupils in Grades VII–XII, used a multiple-choice test of 33 items to measure the results of two months of intensive teaching of a few lessons on the principles of effective study. He found that the difference between the median number of questions answered correctly by pupils in Grade XII (15.8) and the number answered correctly by pupils in Grade VII (11.0) was 4.8. For this six-year period, represented by the junior and senior high school years, the gain was small.

DiMichael (3), working with 192 matched subjects in Grade IX of a parochial high school, used as a measuring instrument a "knowledge of study-skills" test of 224 items. Twenty-seven sessions, 45 minutes in duration, were used with the experimental group to teach them study techniques, while the control group received no instruction. DiMichael concluded from this experiment that ninth-grade pupils do not seem to possess satisfactory knowledge of effective study habits; that students of average mental ability made no significant gains in knowledge of effective study techniques when taught in regular subject-matter classes; and that students of superior mental ability know more about effective study techniques than do students of average ability.

Brink (1) analyzed the study habits of 1,000 high-school pupils and found that the habits of students in the upper fourth of their class follow similar patterns. The following procedures were characteristic of a high per cent of the top-ranking students. They summarized the main points in their own words instead of copying sentences or paragraphs directly from books. They used such study aids as the card catalogue and the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* in making reports, in contrast to the inefficient students who proceeded aimlessly, browsing through books and magazines for their material. The top-ranking students read an entire section to comprehend the general idea and then decided on major and minor

topics of their outline, while the poor achievers simply used chapter titles and section and paragraph headings for an outline form and read by chapters, filling in the outline as they read. The top-ranking students relied strongly on their own judgment and opinions in study situations.

These five studies based upon reliable research designs and involving pupils of the junior and senior high school grades VII–XII seem definitely to prove that work-study skills are serious problems to adolescents and to indicate the need for a concerted effort to train adolescents in proper work-study habits.

Also of interest are the findings of a few studies on the college level, at the upper end of the adolescent years. Schlesser and Young (**10**), working with 498 Freshmen at Colgate University in the area of work-study habits and using a "studiousness" index and the achievement of the upper and lower quarters of the group, concluded that the study habits of these students were on the fourth-grade elementary-school level.

Reeder (**9**), using Wrenn's Study-Habits Inventory with 256 college Freshmen at Ohio State University, found that the correlation between study-habits scores and intelligence-test scores was .18. The correlation of intelligence-test scores with known academic records of the students in their first two quarters of work was .56, and the correlation between final grades and study-habits scores was .265. He concluded that we have a long way to go before exact techniques that make a successful study-habits pattern are identified.

These two experiments on the college level indicate that correct study habits are not properly established on the upper end of the adolescent age range.

CONCLUSIONS AND GENERALIZATIONS

The results of the seven studies discussed above seem to point to certain definite conclusions. First, young elementary-school children seem to profit by instruction in work-study skills more than do adolescents. Second, knowledge of work-study skills does not increase appreciably during the adolescent years from junior high school to junior college (**1, 2, 3, 6, 9, 10**). Third, it is obvious from these studies that more well-controlled research is needed to determine methods that will be applicable in overcoming the deficiencies now existing in work-study habits and skills (**5**).

If work-study habits develop normally in the intermediate grades, why do they not continue to develop in the junior–senior high school grades? Is proper emphasis placed upon them by school personnel? The final section of this paper offers workable suggestions for furthering development in this direction.

SUGGESTIONS FOR SCHOOL PERSONNEL

It has been well established that encouragement of the retention and further development of work-study skills is a psychological problem. Teachers, administrators, and coun-

selors should adopt suitable clinical procedures to overcome the widespread maladjustment in this area.

1. Every teacher should become a teacher of such study skills as pertain to his own subject.

2. Every librarian should participate in this program by co-operating with all teachers to make available the materials of the library. Furthermore, the librarian should have regularly scheduled classes in which he teaches the skills that are unique to his area of the educative process.

3. The student's attitude toward study must be improved.

4. Study procedures to be emphasized in how-to-study courses are note-taking; outlining; reviewing; preparing for examinations; learning the principles of study, including memorizing and remembering; selecting and organizing subject matter; increasing knowledge of word meaning; improving reading comprehension; adapting speed of reading to the materials and the purpose involved; preparing a term paper, theme, or report; identifying and expressing cause-and-effect relationships; using general reference books; using study procedures appropriate to different areas of study.

5. Students should be helped to work out and observe a study schedule.

6. As students progress through the secondary school, they should be taught to work independently at maximum efficiency.

7. Practical clinical procedures should be used by the guidance counselor to help students learn and use helpful study skills. For diagnostic purposes the following inventories might be used: Wrenn's Study-Habits Inventory, Pressey and Troyer's Study Questionnaire, Tibbitts' Study Habit Inventory.

8. Audio-visual aids, such as sound films, maps, charts, graphs, and strip films, are necessary and valuable for satisfactory pupil accomplishment in study skills.

9. Since the parents can help immeasurably in establishing proper work habits by providing an atmosphere in the home conducive to proper study habits, they should be informed of the best conditions for study. Pupils must be taught the study skills by the school before homework can become an effective experience.

10. Teachers, administrators, and counselors should be familiar with the tests of work-study skills in order to direct adequate clinical research (**18**).

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      - (4) *How To Judge Authorities*
      - (5) *How To Judge Facts*
      - (6) *How To Study*
      - (7) *How To Write Your Term Paper*
      - (8) *Know Your Library*
      - (9) *Making the Most of School*
      - (10) *Maps Are Fun*
      - (11) *We Go to School*
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CURRENT PRACTICES IN COURSES FOR THE PREPARATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS

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WITHIN the broad area of teacher education, attention has been focused on various specific elements of the teacher-training curriculum, such as laboratory experiences in student teaching, measurement and prediction of teaching success, teacher competencies, and courses designed to develop these competencies. In particular, methods courses of various types and in various forms are offered widely in teacher-training institutions. There is growing concern as to the place and function of these courses in the preservice programs of teachers.

As yet, relatively little information is available regarding general-methods courses in teacher education. It was the purpose of this study to investigate current practices in conducting general-methods and related courses in the preparation of secondary-school teachers.

PROBLEM AND PROCEDURES

The study was designed to yield information in the following areas pertaining to general-methods courses:

1. Extent of offering, organization, place in the teacher-education sequence
2. Objectives of the course, competencies to be developed through the course, course content
3. The types of classroom procedures and teaching materials employed

The primary means of collecting data and information were the questionnaire, personal visits to institutions, and a study of course outlines, syllabi, and textbooks. The questionnaire was mailed to 512 institutions currently engaged in the education of teachers. A total of 332 (64.8 per cent) completed questionnaires was returned. The sample included 35 state universities, 40 private universities, 47 state colleges, 119 private colleges, 75 state teachers' colleges, 3 private teachers' colleges, 8 municipal universities, and 5 municipal colleges.

MAJOR FINDINGS

Organization and place of the general-methods course.—The course in general methods of teaching in the secondary schools is offered by 70 per cent of the teacher-training institutions participating in this study. It occupies a prominent position in the education sequence for secondary-

school teachers prescribed by state departments of education and by the teacher-training institutions. The course is among the first three in a ranking according to the number of times it is part of a prescribed-course sequence in the preparation of secondary-school teachers.

When the rankings are made according to type of institution, the general-methods course retains this relatively important position. Proposals for supplementing or revising this course have been slow in taking effect. Only fifteen of the institutions indicated that the course in general methods has undergone some degree of alteration. The changes made by these fifteen range from delimitation of content to complete abandonment of the specific course in general methods.

Although no "typical" sequence of education courses is discernible in the institutions participating in this study, the majority of prescribed sequences consist of four major areas: (1) psychology, varying from a single course in educational psychology to a number of specific courses in child and adolescent psychology; (2) secondary education, including courses in history, philosophy, structure, development, and relevant issues; (3) methods, including courses in general and special methods; and (4) student teaching. Student teaching varies from very simple programs, consisting of a single period devoted to a given subject, to an extensive participation including the teaching of major and minor subjects, supervision of co-curricular activities, and participation in community undertakings.

Class enrolments have evidently decreased in size from 1949 to 1950. The 1950 figures indicate an average enrolment of 35.5, with a variation from 27.3 for private colleges to 48.8 in municipal universities and 48.5 in state colleges. Data indicate that a number of institutions combine both prospective secondary-school and prospective elementary-school teachers in one general-methods course.

Predominantly, the general-methods course is placed before student-teaching. Only a few institutions offer the general-methods and student-teaching courses concurrently. In recommending placement, 21 per cent of the respondents stated that they would prefer to see the two courses taught concurrently, with considerably more emphasis upon closer co-ordination of theory and practical application.

The degree of co-ordination between general-methods courses and the work in special methods and in student teaching is admittedly low. The admission of this inadequacy comes not only from instructors teaching the general-methods course but also from instructors who, in addition, teach special methods and supervise student teaching. Schools of various types do not differ in the degree of co-ordination reported.

The basic problem areas with which instructors of general-methods courses

are concerned are providing time and facilities for observation and other activities; co-ordination, without duplication of other professional education courses; making the course functional; and providing for students with varied backgrounds. There is no difference in the numbers and types of problems reported by instructors with varying types and amounts of teaching experience. However, the size of school enrolment does seem to have an effect. The lack of time and facilities is primarily a problem of the smaller institutions, while the chief problems of the larger institutions were making the course functional and providing for individual differences of the students.

Instructors of general-methods courses vary extensively in their teaching experiences. The average at the elementary-school level is 1.78 years; at the secondary-school level it is 8.0 years; and at the college-university level it is 10.78 years. Data on the education of these instructors indicate that 63 per cent of those replying have the degree of Doctor of Philosophy or Doctor of Education and 35 per cent have the Master's degree. Over 90 per cent of the graduate degrees are in the field of education.

Objectives and content of general-methods courses.—The most predominant objectives of the general-methods course and the competencies which are to be developed through it are the following:

1. Knowledge of teaching methods and techniques and skill in utilizing methods and techniques of the teaching and learning process: organization, presentation, co-operative planning in terms of objectives, motivation, and evaluation
2. Skill in classroom management and procedures: discipline, teacher-pupil relationships, group management and control
3. Growth in understanding of children; ability to provide for individual differences of high-school pupils

With respect to the relation of various factors to the choice of objectives, it is found that there are differences according to the type of institution. Differences are also noted in the choice of objectives and competencies by instructors having their graduate degree in education and instructors having it in some other academic field. However, there are no consistent differences when the objectives and competencies are analyzed in terms of the secondary-school teaching experience of the instructor.

The emphasis accorded various topics as part of the general-methods course is consistent with the objectives of the course. No definite trends are discernible. An analysis of the relation of various factors to the degree of emphasis was made. Again, the type of institution appears to be a factor in determining the degree of emphasis accorded specific topics. Neither the secondary-school nor the college experience of the instructor shows any consistent effect upon the degree of emphasis.

The fact that an institution does

not accord a high degree of emphasis to a certain topic does not mean that the particular topic is not considered important or is not given attention in the teacher-education sequence. Many individual questionnaires outline the manner in which these topics are taken care of in other courses.

Classroom procedures, materials, and methods of evaluation.—Lectures, individual reports, and committee work are the predominant classroom procedures used in general-methods courses. Inconsistent with current thinking in teacher education is the fact that relatively little emphasis was being given to observation, visiting schools, and making field trips into communities.

Analysis of type of institution, class size, and professional background of the instructor as these are related to the choice of classroom procedures yielded only a few consistent differences: (1) State teachers' colleges, state colleges, and private colleges give more emphasis to "visits to secondary schools" than do the other types of institutions. (2) Instructors holding the degree of Doctor of Philosophy tend to use the lecture method more than those having the Doctor of Education degree or the Master's degree. (3) Instructors having the degree of Doctor of Education tend to have more panel discussions than those instructors with Masters' and Bachelors' degrees.

Forty-one textbooks are named as prescribed for the general-methods course. Seven of these are used in 70 per cent of the institutions in which textbooks are used. Textbooks are not used in approximately 20 per cent of the institutions replying to the question. Type of institution, size of class, and professional background of the instructor appear not to be related to the degree to which textbooks are utilized, except that the longer an instructor has been teaching at the college level, the more he tends to rely upon a textbook.

Of the responding institutions, 88 per cent indicated that they provide supplementary reading lists, while 58 per cent provide course outlines and syllabi for their general-methods course. On the average, instructors providing outlines and syllabi adhere more closely to them than the general-methods instructors in this study adhere to the textbooks which they are using.

Thirty-one per cent of the institutions replying do not use films in the teaching of the general-methods course, while 44 per cent use three or fewer. This again is inconsistent with current emphases in secondary-school teaching. Type of institution, size of class enrolment, or professional background of the instructor seem to have no appreciable influence on the degree to which films are used in instruction.

The examination and the written assignment are the predominant means of evaluation utilized in general-methods courses. Self-evaluation and evaluation by the group are used relatively little.

PROVISIONS FOR METHODS OF TEACHING IN SELECTED INSTITUTIONS

Personal visits were made to four selected institutions in order to observe the programs at first hand. Two are state teachers' colleges, and two are universities with schools of education.

The four institutions differ widely in the manner in which they provide for instruction on methods of teaching in the education sequence, as well as in a number of other respects. None of the schools has a general-methods course as such, but each attempts to provide for the essentials of teaching methods throughout the education sequence. Each school provides the elements of the theory of methods of teaching in secondary schools, but there is wide variation in the degree to which theory and practice are related and in the degree of emphasis placed upon pupil and community contacts as part of the teacher-education program.

The four institutions exhibit agreement on the importance of interrelating theory and practice. They also agree on the importance that acquaintance with society and with the community has for teaching. To varying degrees, there is an emphasis in all four schools upon the actual application of the principles being taught, such as the use of films and of panel and committee discussions in high-school teaching.

All four schools have retained topics on history, philosophy, and objectives of secondary education in their education sequence. Outside reading as a means toward professional growth is used by these four institutions as well as by the other respondents to the questionnaire.

Within the framework of these activities is found an emphasis upon some form of teaching experience before the regular student teaching is entered upon, both to illustrate various teaching methods being discussed in course work and to provide initial trial contacts for student and supervising teacher.

None of the four programs described above exhibits any tendency to de-emphasize proficiency in the major and the minor subjects of the prospective student. On the contrary, it is felt that increasing the number of visits to high schools would focus the student's attention upon the need of a high degree of proficiency in his particular fields of teaching.

The four teacher-education programs exhibit unanimity regarding the place of counseling and guidance. In all four, continuous guidance and evaluation of the students are considered desirable practices and are implemented throughout their programs.

CONCLUSIONS

It seems evident that relatively few institutions have implemented teacher-education programs that will provide for methods of teaching in a manner consistent with present-day educational thought and convictions.

Similarly, the objectives of general-methods courses and the instructional procedures used in them are not entirely consistent with educational thought regarding methods, visual materials, and the need for understanding the relation of education to society.

The size of class enrolments may be too large, in many cases, to permit utilization of a variety of instructional procedures and materials. Facilities in many institutions have proved inadequate in helping to make the education sequence an effective one. Provisions for observation and other laboratory experiences considered essential in a teacher-education program are conspicuously lacking.

There is an apparent lack of co-ordination and continuity in many of the programs investigated. A number of the respondents indicated that they prefer to have the general-methods course offered concurrently with student teaching, despite the fact that this has not been done in their particular institution.

There is concern regarding the inadequate professional background of instructors of general-methods courses. It can only be surmised that this concern has to do with the instructors who have had only a limited number of years of teaching experience at the secondary-school level.

IMPLICATIONS

In the light of the conclusions given above, the following implications, stated in the form of guiding principles for teacher-education programs, are presented.

Instruction in methods of teaching should be a part of every course in the entire teacher-education sequence, rather than being presented in a discrete course or two. This suggestion assumes the existence of a logical and psychological sequence, with continuity, in the teacher-education program. The achievement of this objective can be enhanced, though not guaranteed, by co-ordinated faculty effort.

This principle requires that a faculty in a school or department of education will have worked out for its program a set of objectives upon which there is general agreement. Furthermore, the principle requires that the individual members of the faculty have adequate professional background and preparation.

Emphasis upon methods of teaching throughout the education sequence does not necessarily imply that special-methods courses have no place in the program. The placement and organization of special-methods courses should be such as to point up the application of certain general principles to a specific situation. Special-methods courses have a definite place and function in the teacher-education program provided they do not deteriorate to mere busywork on the part of the students.

Good continuity and organization of the teacher-education sequence would minimize the duplication and

overlapping for which the programs have frequently been criticized. Where the sequence lacks continuity, the attainment of certain objectives becomes accidental; and in cases where the methods of teaching are presented in a discrete course, considerable faith is being placed in transfer from the theory in that course to the application of the theory in student teaching.

Provision of adequate facilities for carrying on a program of teacher education is a responsibility of the institution. To promote the acquisition of desirable teaching methods, these facilities must include observation and study of high-school pupils as well as experiences in the community in which the students live.

To further provide opportunity for the prospective teacher to become acquainted with a variety of teaching methods, the instructional procedures and materials employed in the educational sequence must demonstrate the application of those methods in actual learning situations. Use must be made of a variety of teaching procedures, such as lectures, discussions, field trips, audio-visual materials, and committee work, in a manner which will allow the prospective teacher to evaluate the effectiveness of these methods. Again, the application of these various methods must permeate the entire education sequence, with full support and understanding by the entire education staff. In other words, the prospective teachers should be taught as the institution and instructors wish them to teach.

Fundamentally, the entire teacher-education sequence should be so organized and co-ordinated as to achieve maximum correlation between theory and practice. The achievement of this objective would facilitate the development by the prospective teacher of a working knowledge of teaching methods for the high school.

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE IN GEORGIA

PEYTON JACOB[1]

*

THE MAIN PURPOSE in this paper on the junior college in Georgia is to set into relief its evolution and present status rather than to present a mass of detailed statements.

A wide variety in the origin, purposes, organization, and control exists among these institutions in Georgia. Most of them are two-year units. Among the public junior colleges there are five junior units of the University System of Georgia; one "branch" state college, maintained as an afternoon program of the Atlanta Division of the University of Georgia; one military college with state and city support; and three municipal colleges, with three entirely different programs and organizations. There are also eight private junior colleges, all church-related.

A FEW DISTINCTIVE DEVELOPMENTS

Illustrative of the different ways in which the junior-college idea has taken hold in the state are the distinctive developments summarized below. The reader will note the mixture of ideological, historical, and imitative factors.

[1] The editors were saddened to learn that Dr. Jacob died as this article was being prepared for the press.

A junior college within a university.—Emory University reorganized its academic program in the middle twenties, in recognition of the logic in the reorganization movement that had advanced to various stages throughout the nation. A separate administrative junior-college unit affiliated with the other junior colleges of the state, and not merely a lower division, was set up. At the time of the reorganization, Dean (now President) Goodrich C. White said that the line of cleavage between the lower and the upper divisions was the "most absolute" in the country. The lower division was organized under a junior-college dean, co-ordinate with, and working in close co-operation with, the deans of Emory's two branch colleges.

Recognition of the *junior-college philosophy* was further shown in the admission and graduation requirements of the lower division and in the academic program of the upper division. Admission requires high-school graduation but no specified pattern of units. Qualitative standards are substituted. The junior-college curriculum is academic.

Graduation from the lower unit (the junior college) is required for ad-

mission to the upper division, the requirements being based in part upon the field of specialization to be followed. The work of the upper division shows rather definitely the recognition of the junior-college philosophy as it affects higher education. There is no required pattern of courses. Each student works out, with advisers, a two-year program of courses leading to his particular objective. The only requirement is that the program be coherent in reference to his objective.

Evolution from, then back to, a four-year college.—Young L. G. Harris College, in the mountains of North Georgia, was chartered in 1886 as a four-year, degree-granting college. Its entrance requirements were necessarily low (as were those of all colleges at that time), and the institution covered somewhat the age span and the amount of subject matter that would be roughly equivalent to those of the present-day four-year junior college. Officially, it became a junior college in 1912, but it had already become a *de facto* junior college, *unawares*, by the simple process of not raising entrance requirements.[2] The growing junior-college movement brought awareness of this fact, and formal recognition of its status followed. It became a two-year junior college after the conventional pattern, with that complete separation of "secondary" from "higher" education demanded with such dogged insistence by the accrediting agencies.[3]

Young Harris College has been, and still is, a notable institution, rendering great service to the ambitious youth of the mountain area and attracting many from the state at large. Though moving forward rapidly, it is probably still too academic to serve the needs of all the mountain youth of its section. Nevertheless, it has had a remarkable influence in the state.

Augusta and its 6-4-4 organization.—When I went to Georgia, in 1918, I found Augusta with a five-year high school, the Academy of Richmond County, which had been chartered in 1785. Although originally private, it had long been incorporated into the city-county system of public schools. Its graduates were accepted in the Sophomore class at the University of Georgia and, in some cases, a little above. The important point, for understanding further developments, is that the curriculum had a *unified five-year span*, with no breaks.

When college-entrance requirements began to rise, in the early twenties, the trustees established (in 1925) the Junior College of Augusta by adding a sixth year and separating the

[2] Leonard V. Koos, in *The Junior-College Movement* (Boston: Ginn & Co., 1925), gives a thorough treatment of the progressive raising of college-entrance requirements in the United States. This process in Georgia exhibited in the twenties what had taken place earlier in the country as a whole.

[3] The accrediting agencies were correct in insisting upon complete separation of *secondary* and *higher* education. They were wrong, if the junior-college philosophy is correct, in their conception of what constitutes "secondary" and what constitutes "higher" education and, thus, of the point at which this separation should be made.

two "college" grades so created, thus conforming to the prevailing two-year pattern. Two or three years ago, the public school leaders of Augusta determined to reorgnize their school system in order to meet better all the needs of all the children. A committee of school officials, including the superintendent of schools and the president of the junior college, visited Pasadena and other California systems, and returned to recommend the 6-4-4 plan for Augusta. In contrast to the former two-year junior college, with its narrowly academic program, the new four-year unit is moving rapidly toward a "community college," with courses in liberal arts, vocational, preprofessional, and fine arts. There are fourteen vocational terminal curriculums and a program of adult education.

Although the aim is a completely integrated four-year unit, the junior college still shows evidences of the seam formerly existing between the four-year high school and the junior college, which will require time to erase. In this study, the separate courses were not examined for evidence of articulation, but it is clear that traditional concepts are still powerful, in spite of complete acceptance of the basic 6-4-4 idea, as is shown by the following facts, among others: (1) Tuition is still charged the "college" students (Grades XIII–XIV). (2) The faculty is still separated into high-school and college teachers, largely because the inherited high-school teachers do not have the Master's degree. (3) The girls are admitted only to Grade XIII, transferring at this point from Tubman, the girls' high school. (4) Athletics, here as elsewhere, militates against desirable realignments of administrative and educational units. There are probably other obstacles to complete integration—all evolved through historic accident.

A church-state combination and its unscrambling.—Two Baptist institutions, Norman College and Brewton-Parker Junior College, started about fifty years ago as "institutes." They were really high schools serving educationally destitute areas on a tuition basis. At some time, arrangements were worked out whereby, on what might be called a contract basis, the local public school boards paid these institutions specified amounts for the local pupils in attendance. Apparently, this plan was no more a mixing of church and state than was the federal government's payment of tuition for "G.I.'s" in church-related colleges. Leaders in the denomination, however, became restive, and an orderly dissolution of the arrangement has been effected. Publicly operated high schools have been developed by the communities.

Like Young Harris College for the Methodists, these institutions, and others that have receded before the advancing public institutions, have poured out a constant stream of leaders for church and state in Georgia. At

the present time, though they still attract high-school graduates of strong religious backgrounds, their *most distinctive* service is the adult education of ministers, many of whom entered the ministry without adequate education and are now serving rural churches.

A branch college serving a city.—The Atlanta Division of the University of Georgia developed an afternoon program of junior-college work for the benefit of graduates of high schools in Atlanta and in towns within commuting distance. The Division serves a large number of students who are not financially able to attend the more expensive institutions.

EVOLUTION OF THE UNIVERSITY SYSTEM OF GEORGIA

Since the junior-college aspect of the University System can be understood only as a phase of its total development, a brief sketch of this evolution follows.

Two converging lines of influence probably led to the creation of the University System of Georgia, which is unique in American education: (1) the grass-roots development of the junior college in Georgia; (2) the "branch-college" idea inherited from the French influence that permeated American education at the time of Thomas Jefferson, leaving more or less permanent traces.

Grass-roots development of the junior college.—The development of the junior college in Georgia was apparently somewhat different from that in the nation as a whole. No definite ideology seems to have been at work, such as the thinking that influenced William Rainey Harper in his promotion of two-year units or the ideology that gave shape to the junior-college movement in California.

To Harper, the Freshman and Sophomore work was essentially secondary, and his purpose seems to have been to separate it from real university work, which he regarded as properly beginning at the present Junior level. His primary interest was in *freeing the university* from the custody of immature secondary-school students in order that it might concentrate on its special task.

On the other hand, the proponents of the junior-college movement in California, although they had the same ideology, had a different aim. They regarded the junior-college grades as properly belonging to the secondary period, but they were primarily interested in *including all secondary-school students* in the program of public education, not in keeping them out of a higher school.

In Georgia, the development seems to have resulted from "resident forces" rather than having been directed by an ideology. The more than usual overlapping of the secondary schools and colleges and the *segmenting out of the overlap*, resulted in the junior college in Georgia.

This process began about the time of World War I. There were very few

four-year high schools in the state, and even three-year public high schools were scarce. Most colleges admitted graduates of three-year schools. Although the Carnegie unit had become the accepted measure of academic achievement, it had not been so rigidly defined as to prevent the average student from accumulating the coveted fourteen units in three years and entering the Freshman class in college. A few strong five-year schools, usually private or church-related academies, prepared their graduates for Junior or near-Junior standing in college. There was thus the persistence to a later date in Georgia than elsewhere of the tendency, discussed by Koos, for the secondary schools to push up the college and for temporary overlapping of territory between them. The overlapped grades, especially in the "academies," frequently performed the transitional function between home and college that is now performed by the detached junior college. As the colleges raised their entrance requirements from fourteen units to graduation from a four-year high school, the four- and five-year academies had to become junior colleges or go out of business. There was little philosophy involved, little explicit recognition of the identity between the subject matter of the secondary school and the junior college.

The same thing happened to the agricultural high schools. These schools were established (or authorized) in 1906, one to each of the twelve congressional districts, to provide definitely vocational and terminal education for the youth of an agricultural state.[4] But as experience has repeatedly shown, terminal education will not stay terminal. These schools were literally *seized upon* by youth from areas without high schools and made to serve as institutions for general education and college preparation. They so served until the public high schools became numerous enough to take away their function. Left with "no place in the sun," they evolved into junior colleges, normal schools, and post-high-school institutions of other types.

The "branch" idea and the University System.—As a result of the interest and activities of Thomas Jefferson, French conceptions gained wide acceptance and for a time were influential in shaping early American ideas of educational organization, especially their strong tendency toward centralization. When the Georgia legislature passed an act, in 1785, granting a charter for the establishment of the University of Georgia, it required that all schools supported by public funds should be part of the University. The idea persisted, somewhat modified and the constitution of 1877 provided that the appropriations for education, aside from those made for "the ele-

[4] On August 18, 1906, the General Assembly passed a bill providing for the establishing of an agricultural and mechanical high school in each congressional district (condensed from a historical sketch of Georgia Southwestern College, prepared by President Lloyd A. Moll).

mentary branches of an English education," should be made to the University.

This provision of the constitution became a legal fiction, as far as the actual organization and administration of higher education was concerned. Nevertheless, it had considerable ideological significance, and the ideology had definite influence on future developments. A number of so-called "branches" of the University were created, but these were not administrative units within the University. Many were created over its opposition rather than at its instigation. When a definite educational need was felt, such as led to the establishing of a college of agriculture or a school of technology, money was appropriated directly to the "branch," and its control was vested in a separate board.

The establishing of branches continued until twenty-five branches were operating, all independent of the University and appealing directly to the legislature for support. The needed reduction of this heterogeneous collection of schools, ranging all the way from outstanding institutions of national repute to glorified high schools, could not be effected by a frontal attack. Logrolling by the legislators from areas with such schools made it impossible to abolish a single school, and the University and other essential institutions were being strangled. Though these numerous schools were often at war with the mother who had never mothered them (she had never been allowed to), the branch idea persisted and gave shape to the reorganization of 1931.

The Reorganization Act of 1931.—In 1931 a legislative act designed "to simplify the operations of the Executive Branch of the State Government," was passed. Section 45 of the act provided for a "department of the State Government of Georgia, to be known as the Board of Regents of the University System of Georgia," to which was transferred the responsibility for twenty-six institutions devoted to education or research.

The Board of Regents was given power to consolidate, redefine the functions of, or abolish, any institutions. Appropriations by the legislature were made in a lump sum to the Board of Regents, who had full authority to allocate moneys to the several institutions. Acting on a survey directed in 1932 by Dr. George A. Works,[5] the board reduced the so-called "system" of twenty-six institutions, of widely varied functions and degrees of efficiency, to seventeen institutions with co-ordinated functions and somewhat comparable standards.

Thus came into being the University System of Georgia. The idea of a University System had grown by easy transition from the concept of a uni-

[5] For the results of this survey, see Georgia University Survey Committee, George A. Works director. *Report to the Board of Regents of the University System of Georgia*, pp. 2 ff. Atlanta, Georgia: Survey Committee, Georgia University, 1943.

versity and its branches, to which the people of Georgia had long been accustomed. But the essential element of the branch idea—that all units should be integral parts of the university—was not embodied in the new setup.

The junior-college setup.—Under the vigorous leadership of the first chancellor, Dr. Philip Weltner, a uniform curriculum was worked out for the six detached junior colleges and the lower divisions of the four-year units, with the exception of the Georgia Institute of Technology. Twelve of the eighteen courses required for graduation or for transfer to the upper divisions were of the "survey type." Six courses were elective, to meet the needs of vocational or pre-professional students. The electives might vary from one institution to another. The survey-type courses of the common, or "core," curriculum were homemade affairs but were influenced by the programs of the University of Chicago and the University of Minnesota. Instead of being really integrated courses, they were frequently mosaics of bits of information taken from the several "integrated" fields or, sometimes, layer cakes with sections from different subjects.

Uniform testing program.—A further unification and standardization of the work for all the institutions was effected by a centrally administered testing program for all the core subjects. Questions were submitted by the members of the several faculties and were subjected to a preliminary testing and statistical treatment by the central bureau. The examinations were given throughout the University System at a specified date *and hour*, were collected the same day by automobile, and were scored at the central office by a Hollerith machine—which the students at the University promptly dubbed the "flunkenstein." The scores were sent to the respective schools, accompanied by norms, and the quarterly marks were assigned by the professors. During World War II the director of the test service entered the service, and, by common consent, the testing program was not resumed.

APPRAISAL

The setup of the University System of Georgia exhibits a pattern that, in some respects, might well become the pattern for the country as a whole. A few of the values and inadequacies, as they appear in retrospect to one who spent fifteen years as a part of its organization, are pointed out below. Of course, this list is by no means exhaustive, nor are the conclusions final. Other students of the system might disagree with the list or add to, and subtract from, it.[6]

Some values of special note are the following: (1) It is a *system*, with units placed for the most part in an overall state-wide pattern. (2) It led to quick recognition of the junior-college

[6] The discussion in the original manuscript which accompanied each of these items had to be omitted because of lack of space.—EDITOR.

idea in the state. (3) It provided near-adequate financing of a few good colleges of academic type. (4) It helped to set standards and patterns for junior colleges in the state. (5) It is relatively free from local political influences.

Some of the inadequacies that may be noted are: (1) There has been an unfortunate freezing of traditional forms of educational organization. (2) There is no local responsibility. (3) Educational opportunities are still uneven. (4) The drive to become four-year colleges persists.

The evolution of the University System reveals the most distinctive feature of the junior-college situation in Georgia. It is to be hoped that it is a transitory—or, preferably, transitional—feature. The reason for this hope is apparent when the list of inadequacies of the Georgia system is examined.

The University System of Georgia has probably the most advanced type of administrative organization in the United States. Its *educational* organization, while in some respects superior, is by no means as far ahead of the average as is its administrative setup. The commission reporting the second survey of the University System (1943), speaking of the 1932 survey said: "As was to be expected the report was not accepted in full by the Board of Regents, but the recommendations that were adopted resulted in the most far-reaching changes that any state has made in its administrative control of its program of higher education."[7]

[7] Georgia University Survey Committee, *op. cit.*, p. 179.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

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THE following list of references to printed materials was furnished by Ernest A. Haggard and Margaret Poznak. With some exceptions, the items appeared between January, 1952, and December, 1952, inclusive. The references to films were provided by Kenneth D. Norberg.

GENERAL AND THEORETICAL DISCUSSIONS[1]

538. CARTWRIGHT, DORWIN, and OTHERS. "Achieving Change in People: Some Applications of Group Dynamics Theory," *Human Relations*, IV (October, 1951), 381–92.

Presents eight principles emerging from research in group dynamics which may be used as guides by persons who are endeavoring to develop a scientific technique of social management.

539. CASSEL, RUSSELL N. "Motivation as a Synthesis of Contemporary Psychology," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLIII (March, 1952), 157–66.

An attempt to illustrate how two basic concepts of psychology, the molar and the molecular, have "given rise to a single synthetic concept of motivation, which has become one of the common denominators of a systematic psychology."

540. COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY OF COLLEGE TEACHERS OF EDUCATION, WALTER W. COOK, chairman. "Current Practices and Innovations in the Teaching of Educational Psychology," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLIII (January, 1952), 1–30.

A report in four parts. Warren R. Baller describes a two-semester course, "The Study of Human Behavior and Development," required of all students in the University of Nebraska Teachers College, emphasizing the features not likely to be included in courses in educational psychology. John E. Horrocks describes a course at Ohio State University which has as its goals the teaching of facts and principles of educational psychology, the fostering of the social and emotional adjustment of the students enrolled, and the supervision of a training program of graduate students who may become college teachers of educational psychology. The class is divided into working groups, and a great deal of class learning is carried on by socialized, co-operative methods, in which students take an active part. Lois B. Murphy relates how in Sarah Lawrence College and in City College, New York City, instructors in educational psychology make the course an illustration of the principles of learning and teaching with

[1] See also Items 745 (Bruce) and 758 (Getzels) in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1952, issue of the *Elementary School Journal* and Items 48 (Dobbs) and 433 (Bernard) in the lists appearing in the January and the March, 1953, issues of the *School Review*.

which it is concerned, rather than a contradiction of the principles as it would be if the course were "unrelated to the maturity level or interests or background of the group or if it consisted in lectures to passive students." Harry N. Rivlin describes the qualifications for teachers of educational psychology at Queens College of the City of New York; the organization of the course; and some of the methods and materials, including a "year-long study of an ordinary child" for prospective elementary-school teachers, and field work with community youth groups for prospective secondary-school teachers.

541. DENNIS, WAYNE, and OTHERS. *Current Trends in Psychological Theory*. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1951. Pp. 214.

Reports eight lectures given under the auspices of the Department of Psychology in the College of the University of Pittsburgh: "Developmental Theories" by Wayne Dennis; "Theories of Personality" by Robert Leeper; "Learning Theories" by Harry F. Harlow; "Theories of Perception" by James J. Gibson; "Cognition and Motivation in Psychological Theory" by David Krech; "Theories of Psychotherapy" by David McK. Rioch, M.D.; "Brain and Behavior" by W. S. McCulloch, M.D.; and "Principles and Problems of Theory Construction in Psychology" by Herbert Feigl.

542. GARRISON, KARL C. *Growth and Development*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1952. Pp. xii+560.

Provides a rather complete account of various aspects of growth and development from infancy through adolescence, including such topics as inheritance, prenatal influences, language, social behavior and attitudes, and personality.

543. GRUENBERG, SIDONIE M. (editor), and the STAFF OF THE CHILD STUDY ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA. *Our Children Today*. New York: Viking Press, 1952. Pp. xviii+366.

Presents a symposium by persons well known in the field of child psychology, such as Arnold Gesell, Anna Freud, Fritz Redl, and Lawrence Frank, in which an attempt is made to synthesize present knowledge in the field and bring up to date a similar study, *Our Children*, published twenty years ago. Areas considered include the attitudes of children as they are affected by socioeconomic-cultural factors; growth, development, emotional needs, and health problems of young children; relation to parents, character-building, and discipline in middle childhood; preadolescence and adolescence; maturation and sex education; changing goals of education; and communication and spiritual values.

544. HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J.; DEHAAN, ROBERT F.; DIETERICH, WILLIAM J.; HACKAMACK, HENRY; JOHNSON, LAVONA; and KING, ROBERT D. *A Community Youth Development Program*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 75. Youth Development Series, No. 1. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1952. Pp. viii+60.

A description of the background of research and theory, and a report of the first six months of work, of a pilot project in a medium-sized midwestern city. This project has as its goals: (1) early prognosis and prevention of maladjustment in children and (2) early prognosis and cultivation of potential talent in children.

545. HERTZMAN, JACK. "Developing a Mental-Hygiene Curriculum in a Public-School System," *Mental Hygiene*, XXXVI (October, 1952), 569–88.

Advocates that a mental-hygiene curriculum be incorporated in the public school program under the guidance of a system-wide psychiatric unit. Discusses the problems faced in establishing such a curriculum, emphasizing that much depends on the selection and training of suitable teachers. Describes one city's experience with a "human-relations" course.

546. KUHLEN, RAYMOND G. *The Psychology of Adolescent Development*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. xviii+676.

A well-organized, carefully documented volume, including extensive treatment of research findings. Part I deals with developmental data and presents an overview of the material. Part II considers specific areas of adjustment. Part III treats the assessment and evaluation of the individual's mental, social, and psychological development.

547. KUHLEN, RAYMOND G., and THOMPSON, GEORGE G. (editors). *Psychological Studies of Human Development.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952. Pp. xiv+534.

A source book of readings in psychology which include research and theoretical papers. Covers some of the more interesting studies of development from infancy to senescence. Of value in courses in human growth and development primarily designed for teachers in training.

MENTAL ABILITIES AND SKILLS

548. BARRETT, DOROTHY M. "Differential Value of Q and L Scores on the ACE Psychological Examination for Predicting Achievement in College Mathematics," *Journal of Psychology*, XXXIII (April, 1952), 205–7.

When the Q and L scores made by college Freshmen on the American Council on Education Examination were compared with their marks in trigonometry, college algebra, and analytical geometry, the Q score correlated better with mathematics marks in only two out of six cases, and total scores (Q and L) correlated neither higher nor lower than Q scores alone. On the basis of the evidence, the author recommends that the Q score should not be used alone to predict probable achievement in college mathematics.

549. COMBS, ARTHUR W. "Intelligence from a Perceptual Point of View," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVII (July, 1952), 662–73.

Argues that intelligence, defined as effectiveness of an individual's behavior, is a function of the individual's perception of the events to which he is exposed and that perception is, in turn, dependent upon his opportunity to perceive, his concept of self, physical condition, environment, goals, and perceived personal threat. The author gives interesting concrete examples to support his view.

550. FREDERIKSEN, NORMAN, and SCHRADER, W. B. "ACE Psychological Examination and High School Standing as Predictors of College Success," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXVI (August, 1952), 261–65.

This study found that the validity of the American Council on Education Psychological Examination tends to be slightly greater as a predictor of college success for male veterans than for male nonveterans, while the validity of high-school standing tends to be greater for nonveterans. The use of a weighted composite of ACE total score and high-school standing provides a useful prediction of Freshman average marks.

551. SACKS, ELINOR L. "Intelligence Scores as a Function of Experimentally Established Social Relationships between Child and Examiner," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVII (April, 1952, Supplement), 354–58.

A study of the changes in intelligence-test scores of ten three-year-old nursery-school children caused by variations in tester-testee rapport. Concludes (1) that familiarity with the tester makes a difference and (2) that the nature of the social relationship between child and examiner is important.

INSTRUCTION AND LEARNING[2]

552. ALLEN, WILLIAM. "Readability of Instructional Film Commentary," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXVI (June, 1952), 164–68.

A study of the effect of four arbitrarily selected film commentary variations upon

[2] See also Item 610 (Leonard) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1952, issue of the *School Review*.

the learning of factual information by 668 pupils in Grade VI. The data show that commentary on a grade level below the grade level of the pupils resulted in significantly greater learning than did commentary written one grade level above. This was also true of the incorporation of such human-interest factors as questions, imperatives, and personal pronouns in a film that lent itself to such humanizing.

553. BOVARD, EVERETT W., JR. "The Psychology of Classroom Interaction," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLV (November, 1951), 215–24.

Leader-centered and group-centered classes were compared. In estimation of the length of a rectangle, group-centered class members showed greater initial dispersion and, on a second estimate, after announcement of class norms, greater degree of influence by the group norm. On an affect scale by means of which students expressed their feeling toward other members of the class and toward the class as a whole, members of group-centered classes showed greater liking for one another and more freedom in expressing positive and negative feelings than leader-centered classes.

554. COWEN, EMORY L. "Influence of Varying Degrees of Psychological Stress on Problem-solving Rigidity," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVII (April, 1952, Supplement), 512–19.

Investigates the hypothesis that increasing degrees of experimentally induced psychological stress will elicit increasing amounts of problem-solving rigidity (here defined as a tendency to adhere to an induced method of problem-solving behavior when the induced solution no longer represents the most direct and economical path to the goal). Concludes that the hypothesis appears to be tenable.

555. DEESE, J. E. *Psychology of Learning*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. 398.

Covers the basic problems of learning, including the acquisition of responses in isolation, reinforcement, extinction, motivation, and punishment; multiple-response learning, including response interaction, serial learning, transfer of training, and forgetting; and special topics such as individual differences, emotion and learning, and neurophysiology of learning.

556. DUNCAN, CARL P.; BELL, GRAHAM; BRADT, KENNETH; and NEWMAN, SLATER E. "How the Poorer Student Studies," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLV (December, 1951), 275–86.

Reports results of a study-habits questionnaire which was given to students in introductory psychology classes. Compares habits and other data obtained for students ranking low in examinations with data on students ranking high.

557. KANNER, LEO. "Emotional Interference with Intellectual Functioning," *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, LVI (April, 1952), 701–7.

Maintains that knowledge of the impact of the emotions on intellectual functioning has helped to individualize the study of mental deficiency, has enlarged the group of "pseudo-feeble-mindedness," and has encouraged recognition of the heterogeneity of the feeble-minded.

558. KOSOFSKY, SIDNEY. "Effectiveness of Positive and Negative Guidance as Related to the Degree of the Organization of the Material To Be Learned," *Journal of General Psychology*, XLVII (July, 1952), 91–104.

Three experiments were conducted with fifty subjects to determine whether the superiority of positive guidance (emphasis on correct responses to be made) over the negative kind (emphasis on responses to be avoided) would be more clearly established if the materials to be learned had a greater degree of internal organization than previous experimental materials. In the serial maze the results show the positive guidance group was slightly superior, while in two multiple-choice situations (where the learning of a task in which all the correct responses led to the formulation of a com-

mon, general principle) the negative guidance group was slightly superior. None of the differences was statistically significant.

559. LOWELL, EDGAR L. "The Effect of Need for Achievement on Learning and Speed of Performance," *Journal of Psychology*, XXXIII (January, 1952), 31–40.

Two tests were given to forty college men. On one test, a scrambled-word task in which learning could take place, the groups started on an equal level, but the group with higher motivation improved more rapidly and kept improving. On the other test, a simple addition task on which no further improvement was to be expected, the group with higher motivation showed higher output from beginning to end.

560. MCGEOCH, JOHN A., and IRION, ARTHUR L. *The Psychology of Human Learning*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1952 (second edition). Pp. xxii+596.

A comprehensive survey of the literature on advanced learning. Of use to advanced students and research workers in the field.

561. MAIER, NORMAN R. F., and SOLEM, A. R. "Audience Role Playing: A New Method in Human Relations Training," *Human Relations*, IV (July, 1951), 279–88.

The quality of thinking of thirty-four groups supplied with a discussion leader was compared with that of thirty-three groups supplied with an observer. The result showed that the two groups gave similar answers before the discussion but that they differed significantly after hearing the discussion. The major part of the difference was due to the greater influence that individuals with minority opinions exert in "leader" groups than in observer groups. The results were interpreted to mean that a leader can function to upgrade a group's thinking by permitting an individual with a minority opinion time for discussion.

562. MANDLER, GEORGE, and SARASON, SEYMOUR B. "A Study of Anxiety and Learning," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVII (April, 1952), 166–73.

An investigation of anxiety responses in a testing situation and the effect of those responses on performance and learning. Two groups of students—one high, and the other low, in anxiety—were subdivided into "success," "failure," and "neutral" groups. After tests had been administered without comment, the tests were readministered while the respective groups were encouraged, discouraged, or merely told to continue.

563. MONROE, WALTER S. *Teacher-learning Theory and Teacher Education 1890 to 1950*. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1952. Pp. viii+426.

Traces the history of "modern thinking" on problems in the nature of classroom learning, teaching theory, and the rationale of teacher training from 1890 to 1950. Gives the psychological and philosophical background and describes the changes in thought concerning the function of the teacher in the school learning situation.

564. THELEN, HERBERT A. "The Experimental Method in Classroom Leadership," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (October, 1952), 76–85.

Defines "leadership" and shows that leadership is inevitable and necessary; examines a number of functions of leadership; and shows how the classroom teacher can be a more effective leader by using the experimental method to determine leadership functions and the best approach to his group's problems.

565. TROW, WILLIAM C. "Educational Psychology and Teaching," *Michigan Education Journal*, XXIX (February, 1952), 369–70.

A reply to an article by Arthur P. Coladarci, *Preprofessional Experiences in Educational Psychology* (Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXVII, No. 5). Points out why it is difficult to teach educational psychology in such a way that students will later apply

the principles which they have supposedly learned. Lists conditions emphasized by educational psychologists which are already found in good schools and which may possibly be found more generally when there is better communication and more co-operation within schools and between schools and students of the field.

566. WISPE, LAUREN G. "Evaluating Section Teaching Methods in the Introductory Course," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLV (November, 1951), 161–86.

When matched sections of elementary-school pupils were differentially taught social science for one semester, responses to a TAT-type test, a sentence-completion test, and a questionnaire indicated that pupils preferred the directive sections (highly structured and subject-matter–centered) to the permissive sections (unstructured and student-centered). Directive sections were preferred because they were clearly defined and appeared to give better preparation for examinations, but students enjoyed the permissive sections more. No significant difference between the two groups as a whole was found in performance on the objective final examination, but directive sections were more beneficial to the poorer students.

PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL ROLE[3]

567. BANHAM, KATHARINE M. "Obstinate Children Are Adaptable," *Mental Hygiene*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 84–89.

Points out that obstinate behavior is the end product of a conflict between independent and dependent action and is most common during the second year of life and during adolescence. The conflict producing obstinacy can be overcome when the child finds something to do which gives him satisfaction and yet does not go contrary to the wishes of those who are important to him.

[3] See also Item 785 (Williamson and Hoyt) in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1952, issue of the *School Review*.

568. DOOB, LEONARD W. *Social Psychology*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1952. Pp. xx+588.

Presents the significant, persisting problems of social psychology. The book is divided into three parts: "The Individual in Society," "The Behavior of Groups," and "Social Change."

569. GAIER, EUGENE L. "The Relationship between Selected Personality Variables and the Thinking of Students in Discussion Classes," *School Review*, LX (October, 1952), 404–11.

Shows how the personality characteristics of anxiety, rigidity, and negativism can influence a student's type and amount of classroom participation. Suggests that personality factors be considered and discussion procedures adapted not only to varied intellectual ability but to varied personality characteristics of the group.

570. GOUGH, HARRISON G., and PEMBERTON, WILLIAM H. "Personality Characteristics Related to Success in Practice Teaching," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXVI (October, 1952), 307–9.

An attempt to predict practice-teaching success from personality-test measures revealed that single scales on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory showed little validity but that various patterns and indices gave considerable promise. The men who were the more successful practice teachers tended to score lower on Hy (hysteria), lower on Pd (psychopathic deviate), and higher on Psy (psychological aptitude).

571. HINKELMAN, EMMET ARTHUR. "Relation of Certain Personality Variables to High-School Achievement," *School Review*, LX (December, 1952), 532–34.

Shows how certain personality variables can influence a student's achievement in school and suggests that predictions of success will be more accurate if these personality factors, as well as intelligence, are measured.

572. JERSILD, ARTHUR T. *In Search of Self.* A Publication of the Horace Mann–Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. Pp. xii+142.

The author analyzed pupils' compositions on things they liked and disliked about themselves and used group and individual pupil interviews to help interpret the data. Believing that pupils have a greater capacity for self-understanding than the teacher realizes, he used the composition data as a source for hypothesis and speculation about the dynamics of personality development and the relation between self-understanding and understanding of others. Jersild believes that the teacher can use his own psychological insights and information to aid boys and girls to understand and "discover" themselves. To this end he urges that the teacher must improve the quality of his information and insights and must strive to understand himself better.

573. KANZER, MARK. "Psychiatric Case Studies with Teachers," *Mental Hygiene*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 44–55.

Points out that the important role which the teacher may play in prophylactic psychiatry can be attained only when educational rather than therapeutic goals are established. Maintains that the establishment of a training program in which teachers and psychiatrists could freely interchange ideas should result in improved integration between education and mental hygiene. Describes the methods utilized to accomplish this in one program.

574. KUHLEN, RAYMOND G., and COLLISTER, E. GORDON. "Sociometric Status of Sixth- and Ninth-Graders Who Fail To Finish High School," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XII (Winter, 1952), 632–37.

Data obtained by sociometric devices were analyzed to show contrasts between students who later completed, and those who failed to complete, high school. Those who dropped out were less acceptable socially to their classmates and were judged by their classmates to possess traits indicative of personal and social maladjustment. The authors maintain that, for many, quitting school is mainly an escape from an intolerable social situation.

575. LENN, THEODORE I. "Social Class: Conceptual and Operational Significance for Education," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XXVI (October, 1952), 51–61.

Surveys the near parallelism existing between the conceptual and operational treatments given to the social-class phenomenon by sociologists and anthropologists and the consideration given to the same subject by educators. Raises some questions with regard to the implication that this might hold for education.

576. LEVINE, JACOB, and BUTLER, JOHN. "Lecture vs. Group Decision in Changing Behavior," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXVI (February, 1952), 29–33.

Compares the effectiveness of the formal lecture method with the process of group decision in inducing 29 supervisors of 395 factory workers to overcome their biased ratings of performance. The results showed that only the group of supervisors involved in group decision improved in their ratings. The other group persisted in overrating the more highly skilled workers and underrating the less skilled. The conclusion was drawn that group decision is more effective than the formal lecture in overcoming resistance to change in behavior.

577. MENSH, IVAN N., and MASON, EVELYN P. "Relationship of School Atmosphere to Reactions in Frustrating Situations," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLV (December, 1951), 275–86.

The Rosenzweig Picture-Frustration Study was given to two groups of girls in Grades V–VIII: one group in a progressive school, the other in a traditional school. The factors of personality adjustment, intelligence, age, sex, and socioeconomic status were held constant. Results for the Group Conformity Rating indicated that both

groups were within the normal range but that pupils in the traditional school tended toward overconformity while pupils in the progressive school differed significantly in the opposite direction.

578. SHAW, JACK; KLAUSMEIER, HERBERT J.; LUKER, ARNO H.; and REID, HOWARD T. "Changes Occurring in Teacher-Pupil Attitudes during a Two-Weeks Guidance Workshop," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXVI (October, 1952), 304–6.

Reports a study made to determine whether changes in attitudes occur during postgraduate training of experienced teachers. Statistically significant increases were found in the means of initial and final scores on the Minnesota Teacher Attitudes Inventory for a group of 158 teachers, counselors, principals, and superintendents enrolled in a two-week guidance workshop.

579. TABA, HILDA; BRADY, ELIZABETH HALL; and ROBINSON, JOHN T. *Intergroup Education in Public Schools: Experimental Programs Sponsored by the Project in Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools: Theory, Practice, and In-service Education.* Washington: American Council on Education, 1952. Pp. xii+338.

A general report on the explorations of an experimental project in intergroup education. Gives a summary of the program patterns developed and a statement of principles and theories that guided the workers. Describes ways in which understanding of human and group relations can be integrated into curriculum and school life in the public schools.

580. WITHALL, JOHN. "Assessment of the Social-emotional Climates Experienced by a Group of Seventh-Graders as They Moved from Class to Class," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XII (Autumn, 1952), 440–51.

Reports that seventh-graders experienced greatly differing emotional climates as they moved from class to class. Teachers' statements were assigned to seven levels of feeling, emotion, or desire inferred to influence the emotional climate of the class. The statements were viewed as forming a pattern of verbal behavior which gives evidence of the affect, the focus of concern, and the problem-centeredness of the teacher and of the class. The instrument used to assess the psychological climate was the "Social-emotional Climate Index" developed by the author.

581. WRIGHT, HERBERT F.; BARKER, ROGER G.; NALL, JACK; and SCHOGGEN, PHIL. "Toward a Psychological Ecology of the Classroom," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLV (November, 1951), 187–200.

The Midwest Field Study of Children's Behavior is referred to as an example of methods used to study the psychological ecology of the classroom. The record of the behavior and life-situation of a seven-year-old boy through one full day is described as an illustration. Methods used to analyze such records are discussed.

FILMS

The following list of selected instructional motion pictures is restricted to recent 16mm films not previously listed in this journal. All listings are sound films unless otherwise indicated.

582. *The Child at Play.* 18 minutes, black and white. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952.

Outlines the character of spontaneous play of children of various ages. The playing of children is viewed in a one-way-vision room.

583. *Face of Youth.* 28 minutes, black and white. Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin, 1952. (Produced by the Wisconsin State Board of Health, Division of Mental Health.)

Two boys with personality difficulties benefit when parents, school, and state agencies combine efforts to help them work out their problems. One boy is a typical "bad" boy; the other is "too good."

584. *Your Children's Play*. 21 minutes, black and white. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. (Produced by British Information Services.)

Shows how children learn by playing. Attention is given to several aspects of child development. The importance of parental attitudes toward play is stressed.

INTERNATIONAL FILM BUREAU, CHICAGO

585. *Farewell to Childhood*. 23 minutes, black and white. 1952. (Sponsored by the North Carolina State Board of Health, and produced by Herbert Kerkow for the Mental Health Board.)

An adolescent girl and her parents achieve a better relationship as they learn to understand one another.

586. *First Lessons*. 22 minutes, black and white. 1952. (Produced by Knickerbocker Productions for the Iowa Mental Health Authority and the Mental Health Film Board.)

Deals with the problems faced by a teacher when an aggressive child becomes a member of the class. Suggestions for dealing with this type of situation are shown.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

587. *Anna N.—Life History from Birth to Fifteen Years*. 1 hour, silent, black and white. 1952. (Produced by Margaret E. Fries and Paul J. Woolf.)

Traces the development of a child of superior intelligence in a neurotic family. Anna is depicted as a fairly healthy child with depressive, hysterical, and inhibited tendencies.

588. *Anxiety: Its Phenomenology in the First Year of Life*. 20 minutes, silent, black and white. 1952.

The development of anxiety in an infant is studied from a psychoanalytic point of view.

589. *Childhood Rivalry in Bali and New Guinea*. 10 minutes, black and white. 1952. (Produced by Gregory Bateson and Margaret Mead.)

Compares the behavior of children of the same age in two cultures. Shows how mothers in the two cultures differ in their methods of handling sibling rivalry and contrasts related behavior of the children.

590. *Shaping the Personality: Role of Mother-Child Relations in Infancy*. 30 minutes, silent, black and white. 1953. (Produced by Dr. Rene A. Spitz.)

The breast-feeding behavior of five mothers, shown successively, is interpreted as expressing their several conscious or unconscious wishes as to what the child should be like.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

ARNOLD R. MEIER, FLORENCE DAMON CLEARY, and ALICE M. DAVIS, *A Curriculum for Citizenship: A Total School Approach to Citizenship Education.* A Report of the Citizenship Education Study. Detroit: Wayne University Press, 1952. Pp. x+414.

How to improve citizenship instruction has long been a real problem in our schools. What eight Detroit schools did about this question is the basis of this book.

It is also a narrative account of in-service education, giving many valuable suggestions for identifying problems of concern to a faculty, securing faculty interest in their solution, improving techniques for committee work, scheduling outside consultants, planning effective visiting of neighboring schools, and developing competent faculty leadership.

The Citizenship Education Study was organized within eight Detroit schools—two senior high schools, two junior high schools, and four elementary schools—representing sections of the city with wide variations in economic and social backgrounds. A director and seven additional staff members were provided. Money was available from the Volker Fund for the salaries of this staff, for purchase of professional library materials, for employment of outside consultants, for expenses of excursions to visit other cities, and for salaries of substitute teachers to release regular teachers for intensive work.

The three authors report only the work in the two junior high schools and two of the elementary schools, where they served as coordinators for the entire five years. As one reads the description of the junior high schools, one feels that the schools presented almost unsolvable problems of race tensions, juvenile delinquency, failures in subject matter, large classes, lack of pride in school, and disorder. The two elementary schools represented fewer community problems and a more wholesome educational situation.

There are four main divisions in the book. Part I gives a description of the study, the schools involved, and initial approaches made by the staff.

Part II sets forth the theory underlying the study. Chapter vi is devoted to the "work-group-conference" method, including an excellent description of group dynamics.

Part III decribes what was actually done. Here are found many practical suggestions. Because an understanding of the meaning of democracy is crucial in improving citizenship, a carefully developed definition of "democracy" is given. On pages 148–55 is presented a "Framework of Democracy" in four parts: (1) "Dignity and Worth of the Individual," (2) "Man Can and Should Govern Himself," (3) "Understanding Democracy's Privileges and Their Attendant Responsibilities," and (4) "The Use of the Method of Intelligence in Solving Problems." Under each of these titles are from five to seven "aspects," "criteria," and "manifestations" which should be known and understood by every high-school graduate. Much emphasis is placed upon desirable changes in behavior by pupils.

Part IV is an attempt to survey the five-year experiment as a whole, to evaluate its methods of work, and to summarize the results.

The reader looking for a blueprint for quick curriculum development will be disappointed. The account confirms previous

findings that in-service growth takes place when teachers come to grips with problems of real concern to them. Somehow an atmosphere conducive to growth must be created, and this does not come by chance. One sees from this report that in schools having a friendly administration much more was accomplished than in schools where the administration was indifferent.

The importance of having competent coordinators and consultants and funds for releasing time of teachers is clearly evident. One feels certain that, without such assistance, there would have been little organized improvement.

The individual classroom teacher or principal can secure many practical suggestions from this report. It abounds in descriptions of techiques for improving faculty meetings, use of visiting days, dinner meetings, and coffee hours. There is help for the teacher who sponsors the student council or home room. Methods of working with the community, visiting parents in their homes, using sociodrama or role playing, and adapting work to individual differences are described in a very practical manner.

This is not a book to be skimmed through in a couple of hours. One needs to spend enough time to live, with the staff, their experiences in these four schools. To understand fully the preliminary fumblings, the trial and error, the failures and successes, and the pleasure and satisfaction as results began to be achieved, one must note carefully the preliminary planning, the techniques employed, and the evaluation of results obtained. Perhaps the book's greatest contributions are the frank narrative account of just what was done and the honest effort to give an accurate evaluation.

PAUL W. HARNLY

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HAROLD W. BERNARD, *Mental Hygiene for Classroom Teachers*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xiv+472. $4.75.

Since 1908, when Clifford Beers wrote *A Mind That Found Itself*, the mental-hygiene movement which he was a force in establishing has been steadily growing. The 1920's showed considerable growth in child-guidance clinics, and in the 1930's there began to develop a body of literature which showed the need for giving consideration to mental hygiene in our schools. During the war years, in the 1940's, when a startling per cent of the persons examined for military services were rejected because of mental or emotional instability, the magnitude of our problem became apparent, and it received official government recognition with the passage of the National Mental Health Act in 1946. It is possible that the 1950's will mark basic revisions of school practices and educational methods which will not only relieve mental distress but will also prevent the development of mental illness in significant numbers of our school population.

Mental Hygiene for Classroom Teachers, which appears to this reviewer to be one of the best books that has been written in the field, will be helpful to all school personnel who wish to use mental-health principles in their work. In fact, any citizen interested in building a healthier society through our schools should read this book.

The first chapter is a straightforward report on the extent of mental illness, an explanation of what mental health is, and a presentation of the preventive and curative aspects of mental hygiene. The next four chapters in Part I deal with basic human needs. Causes and symptoms of maladjustment are described, with due reference to the multiple causation of behavior.

Part II includes seven chapters on mental hygiene in the classroom. Herein is a wealth of material which will be challenging to teachers, including a chapter on the age-old problem of discipline.

Part III concerns special approaches to mental health—art, creative writing, drama, and play. Although this section will be of

particular interest to teachers of the arts, any classroom teacher will learn how the arts and play can be a means of getting to know children and assisting them. The last chapter of this section, one of the most important chapters in the book, points out the limitations and precautions regarding mental hygiene. This chapter relieves some of the guilt which teachers feel after reading a book on mental hygiene and then realizing, with some shame, that some of their practices are bad because of their own personality problems or because of school conditions over which they have little control. Having done this, the author leads into the final section, which is devoted to the teachers' mental health.

The first chapter of Part IV, "A Positive View of the Teaching Profession," might well be reprinted in pamphlet form and made available to high schools for "careers" courses. A description of the advantages enjoyed by teachers is followed by information about the disadvantages that need attention. The final chapters deal with the teacher's philosophy about education, mental health, and his own life.

In addition to being good reading material for any adult, this volume would be very useful as a textbook in teachers' study groups. It is adequately documented with references to the publications of over two hundred psychologists, psychiatrists, and educators. At the close of each chapter there are annotated lists of study and discussion exercises, suggested additional readings, and visual aids.

AUGUSTA JAMESON

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CLARK ROBINSON, *Making the Most of School and Life.* New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1952. Pp. x+492.

The past two decades have produced extensive materials in the general area of guidance, and these materials have approached the problems from many angles. *Making the Most of School and Life* is designed as "a textbook to help young people who are beginning to have experiences outside the family circle," as they are learning both how to make personal choices and how to play their parts in society (p. v). The book is addressed to the student to help him learn self-direction.

The first four parts, designed to give the student knowledge and understandings which will be useful to him in directing his own activities, are "The Part You Play in Your Own Growth," "Improving Your Learning Ability," "Learning about People," and "Setting Your Goal." Part IV emphasizes that the student must know *himself* and must know where he wants to go. Part V deals with the student's relations with others at home, in school, and out of school; Part VI, with the problems of living involving physical and mental health, safety, leisure-time activities, and participation as a citizen in a community; and Part VII, with data and procedures to be considered in choosing one's lifework.

The textbook is written in a style that can be understood by the high-school student, and, throughout, the chapters have been addressed to him. The materials are, in many cases, introduced in the form of a question, such as the sentence at the beginning of chapter xxiv: "What do you want to do when you grow up?" There are twenty-seven chapters, each of which deals with certain specific problems or needs of adolescents and postadolescents. Each chapter is followed by a study guide, which includes exercises under the following headings: "Check Your Reading," "For Your Notebook," "Check Your Thinking," and "What Others Have Said." An annotated bibliography of general materials and fiction in the Appendix furnishes a useful guide to supplementary reading.

The author has selected materials appropriate to the problems discussed and has presented them in a nontechnical manner. A large number of photographs enliven the materials covered and should stimulate the student and help him better grasp the meanings and generalizations of the textbook. Further-

more, the author has not made the common mistake of pointing most of the discussions and illustrations toward the professions and the higher occupational skills. Although the major purpose of the book is not to furnish occupational information, more attention could perhaps have been given to opportunities at the different levels in the different occupations and to occupational trends. Also, more attention should have been given to problems encountered by adolescents in growing up physically, mentally, and emotionally. The adolescent must learn to accept his own physical self, his mental ability, and his special limitations.

This textbook will be useful for high-school groups because of the help it offers to adolescent boys and girls in meeting their problems as they grow toward maturity.

KARL C. GARRISON
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ROD and LISA PEATTIE, *The Law: What It Is and How It Works*. New York 21: Henry Schuman, Inc., 1952. Pp. 146. $2.50.

This little book for junior and senior high school students is a colorfully written introduction to the idea of law and the place of law in our lives.

Law is everywhere in our society, the reader is told, and he is given specific examples of the many laws that affect his daily affairs. By comparing life in urbanized, twentieth-century United States with that in an Eskimo or a Hopi village, and comparing the methods used in each to safeguard group welfare, the point is made that our system of law is complicated and becomes increasingly so. Our society has developed formal laws to deal with many problems which, in simpler societies, are settled by custom or public opinion. Law is distinguished from custom and rules and is defined (with many examples and comparisons) as "a governmental system of control, which has rule, consent, force, and procedure."

"Who Makes the Law?" This question is discussed to show the part of legislative bodies in adopting laws and the part of courts in interpreting and applying the laws. Decisions regarding constitutionality of laws are considered. "How law changes" is illustrated by tracing the development of the law of employer's liability from the 1660's to the present—a significant, well-chosen example. The distinction between criminal and civil law is explained, as is the work of the jury.

The abstract ideas involved in these topics are, for the most part, approached through colorful anecdotes or references to situations that have been directly experienced by most secondary-school students. There is the story of "Old Wicked," for example, who is such a menace that one afternoon his Eskimo neighbors decided, without benefit of formal law court, that he should be shot; one of them took care of it the next day. The discussion of "Who makes the law?" begins with the school study hall in which the principal "makes" the "law" that there be no noise, the teacher in charge "interprets" it by deciding that quiet whispering is acceptable conduct, and the substitute teacher "appeals to precedent" by discovering and enforcing the teacher's "interpretation" of the principal's "law."

The lively, attractive illustrations found throughout will help create reader interest. Social-studies teachers will welcome this volume, which can be used by superior readers in the junior high school and by good-to-superior readers in the senior high school. In spite of the authors' skilful use of specifics to develop concepts, the young reader will encounter paragraphs where abstract ideas are used to explain other, larger abstractions. Although most of the difficult words are carefully intoduced, the immature reader will find the vocabulary difficult because of the number of new words or the new, more complicated meanings for familiar words. In short, the concepts presented are difficult and require a background for comprehension. The teacher, realizing this, will utilize the many examples and interest-getting devices provided and will build up on them to help

students understand the legal structure of their society.

DOROTHY MCCLURE FRASER

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JOHN M. BREWER, *Wellsprings of Democracy: Guidance for Local Societies*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, 1952. Pp. xii+232. $4.50.

The thesis of this book is that democracy gains strength when local voluntary organizations are constantly providing training and practice in democratic procedures. The author believes that the foundation of our representative government lies in the union, church, league of voters, grange, aid society, service club, orchestra, or civic organization. Because of this theme, which runs throughout the book, the late John M. Brewer has written not just another guide to parliamentary procedure but a thoughtful, practical, down-to-earth handbook for members and officials of local societies.

The chairman who wants to find the proper precedence for motions will find the information presented here in an easily understood manner. But he will find more: as he learns whether an amendment to an amendment can be amended, he will learn also something of the working of democracy, why organizations need to be democratic, and some of the practices that make organizations democratic or antidemocratic.

There are chapters dealing with the election of officers; the ways of organizing societies; the functioning of committees; the writing of the constitution, minutes, and other documents of organizations. The duties of officers and boards are explained and illustrated. Throughout there are simple, interesting examples. Do's and don't's are interspersed.

Even to the person quite familiar with parliamentary usage, two ideas of Brewer's will warrant careful reading. One of these deals with the concept of the judicial council. He builds a strong case for the idea not only that each local organization should have separation of legislative and executive functions but that some members should have a judicial role, as, for example, in hearing complaints and grievances. The other unique idea concerns the choice of officers to insure democratic elections. After reviewing typical election methods, Brewer describes in detail what he calls a "no-nominations" method, in which nominations are made by ballot during the meeting and combined with a unique type of election.

A weakness of the book is that it is limited strictly to traditional parliamentary methods for group activity. The writing reflects none of the recent interest either in group dynamics or in problem-solving procedures. Consequently, the book will have its greatest usefulness with adults actually involved in local organizations and less use with students in high schools or colleges. The book is recommended for persons working in the field of adult education.

STANLEY E. DIMOND

University of Michigan

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

BAKER, HARRY J. *Introduction to Exceptional Children*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1953 (revised). Pp. xvi+500. $5.00.

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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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ADOLESCENTS ON OUR MINDS

IN EVERYONE'S university experience there was at least one professor whose scholarly life seemed disturbed only by the fact that he had to deal with students. It likewise occurs to some teachers, no doubt, that secondary schools would be wonderful places in which to serve were it not for adolescents. At times a comparable feeling must come over the adolescents themselves, especially if they perchance glance through the literature written about them. Perhaps when the final book is writ, civilization can be accounted for by the fact that only the "super" post-adolescents read what is written about adolescents. But, no matter at what price, the oldsters must concern themselves with this involved period in human development if the secondary schools are to continue to be successful social institutions.

Some of the problems which we associate with the teen-age are difficulties arising from the socioeconomic conditions created by Western civilization and some from the notions of youth guidance which society conceives as proper at the moment. A good summarization of characteristics of adolescents is given by Dale B. Harris, professor in the Institute of Child Welfare at the University of Minnesota, in the May, 1953, issue of the *American Child:*

> I would like to direct your attention to three characteristics of adolescent children which seem to hold regardless of the philosophical basis of society, the prevalent theory of child rearing or of education, or the predominant culture values. First, adolescence is a period of considerable energy manifestation. We are a long way from understanding the role of hormones in energy mobilization and display, but there is undoubtedly some relationship between the rush of hormones into the youngster's system just before puberty, and the very rapid growth in muscle tissue, particularly in boys, which occurs around the time of puberty. We are all impressed with the tirelessness of youth, their capacity to keep

going for long hours, to manifest spurts of power. They keep going where older people sag. In practically every society youth is a period when there is energy to burn and when this energy is manifested in group activities. In the second place, a prominent feature of adolescence is sexual interest. I use this term broadly—the growing awareness of girls for boys and boys for girls, the whole complex of heterosexual social relations which ultimately lead to courtship and marriage. Again there is an undoubted physiological base for this turn of interests during the teen years, and it is manifested in one form or another in every human society or group. Finally, there is the modification of the child's dependency status. While this has been going on ever since infancy, it is dramatized by the overt breaks with adult authority during adolescence. Some primitive folks aid the young person, through dramatic ceremonies, to be defined as adult. Some like ourselves, not necessarily more wise than the primitives, at best allow the adolescent to muddle through to mature status and at worst impede his progress by reminding him that he continues to be dependent at a time when he is quite sure he can manage some affairs for himself.

Professor Harris' foregoing statement is in prologue to his very valuable observations concerning the development of that much-discussed trait, responsibility. Upon this subject he continues:

Recognizing these characteristics of individual growth, we find ourselves constrained to say that the individual develops responsibility toward others in terms of attitudes and values which he absorbs and accepts. We do not believe attitudes of responsibility come as a result of conformity in behavior, formalized and standardized in rules, slogans, or mottoes.

Studies of the learning process offer much evidence that when the child is motivated and an active participant in the operation, the organization of behavior goes on apace. The development of responsibility in children must be a process which uses the participation of children and young people themselves and not something done to them from outside. This view I think is of fundamental importance. What you really believe about children as modifiable or learning organisms will determine a great deal about what you do to children.

The teen-agers, usually thought of as the boys and girls fourteen through nineteen years of age, numbered nearly thirteen million in 1950, and government estimates indicate that by 1960, when the babies born during World War II reach this age, there will be nearly seventeen million of them. *Youth, The Nation's Richest Resource*, a government publication issued in 1953 by the Interdepartmental Committee on Children and Youth (Government Printing Office, $0.20), points out that, if we are genuinely interested in this great resource, we must as a nation and as individuals do the following:

1. Help boys and girls stay in school until they are mature, trained, and responsible enough to contribute to their maximum capacity in the working world and in a democratic society. They will want to stay in school if it makes sense to them and gives them real-life experiences.

2. Help young people continue their education—in high school, college, or special schools—in order that they may develop their powers most fully. No one should be barred by lack of funds from the education he wants and is fitted for.

3. Help boys and girls who are out of school or who feel that they must leave school to find suitable jobs. At this point

they need and should have the help of competent counseling and placement services.

4. Insure good working conditions for employed young people and supervision on the job that cultivates good work habits, adaptability, and respect for themselves and others.

5. Wherever, and whenever, jobs for young people are scarce, be ready with alternative plans for special training and work projects, drawing on public resources. These projects should not be merely expedients. They should add to the growth and development of the trainee, and contribute constructively to his role in society. A part of the challenge and satisfaction to the worker comes from a realization of the importance and worth-whileness of the job he is doing.

6. Pay particular attention to developing and carrying out wise policies for education and employment of youth in the present period of national crisis and responsibility when it is imperative to use and develop all the nation's human resources in the best possible way.

Employment of teen-agers Work is good for the mind, body, and soul. The human being must learn to work just as he must learn many other things. To learn to work effectively takes many years of experience. Adolescence is a good time to start. Initial work experiences are not easy, however, and they come, in the case of the adolescent, at a time when many other adjustments and experiences with society and himself are being made. It is important, therefore, that care be exercised to control the amount and conditions of the initial work experience to which the teen-ager is exposed. Too much work or working at the wrong time can be damaging. Our information about the employment of teen-agers is brought up to date by *Young Workers in 1952*, the annual report of the National Child Labor Committee (419 Fourth Avenue, New York 16). Quoted from this report are several of the introductory paragraphs:

Employment of school-age boys and girls in 1951–52 continued at a high level, though considerably below the wartime peak of 1944–45. Census estimates fluctuate from month to month due to seasonal employment and sampling variations, but roughly they show about 2,000,000 young people, 14 to 17 years inclusive, working in full-time or part-time jobs during the school year—and an additional million during the summer vacation months.

This high rate of employment indicates the need for vigilance on the part of those responsible for determining and enforcing the legal standards under which children work. It also suggests the need for evaluating programs for the training and supervision of young workers.

Work experience can be an important factor in a child's progress towards maturity. By setting standards that will permit young workers to engage only in suitable jobs and under suitable conditions, good child labor laws can help insure worth-while employment.

Important points to be considered in judging the significance of two million boys and girls under 18 years in our labor force are: whether their employment interferes with their schooling, what kind of jobs they hold, and how many hours they are working.

The gap between school and work Though schools generally are not as "personnel-minded" as they should be, they are infinitely more so than is the workaday world.

One of the most trying adjustments which the individual must make in life is that which takes him from school or college to work. Any plan which helps young people to bridge the gap between school and industry should prove of interest to teachers and school administrators. In the June, 1953, issue of *New York State Education*, Schoolman Robert Louis Cooley, of Niagara Falls, New York, reports an experience with one such attempt. States Mr. Cooley:

Sharp need for technically trained people was demonstrated by Niagara Falls industry as it co-operated in a Science in School and Industry exhibit, April 13, 14, and 15, at the invitation of John H. Edwards, Niagara Falls high-school science teacher.

Sponsored by twenty-two local industries, and viewed by over 10,000 spectators, the exhibit had a twofold purpose of displaying to the public products made by Niagara Falls and, more particularly, of demonstrating to students the opportunities for careers with local firms, especially for the many technical jobs in which knowledge of scientific subjects is essential.

Greatest stress was on need for engineers, chemists, and technicians, although other career fields were likewise recommended.

Educational tie-in was clearly established by the high school's two guidance counselors who were constantly present to pass out career-field literature, and to consult with students, parents, and industrialists concerning colleges, careers, preparation for positions, and the working of the school guidance program.

University of Buffalo, Niagara University, Canisius College, and the New York State Institute of Applied Arts and Sciences each sponsored booths showing the facilities of their schools for preparing students in technical subjects, and had representatives present to offer information. . . .

Several of the twenty-two factories showed scale models going through plant processes from raw-material stage to finished products; others displayed actual equipment in operation; and still others had specialists performing their work. An electro-plating vat in operation put a gleaming finish on an auto bumper; a model of a dial telephone showed visitors how the electric relay system functions when a number is dialed; a ceramic artist molded clay products; and a chemist worked with electric and glass equipment, demonstrating operations in a typical research laboratory.

DuPont's booth probably most clearly expressed the theme of the show, charting the course of students from their respective secondary schools (shown in illuminated colored positive transparencies) through the colleges of their choice, and into favored positions in the chemical or technical field. . . .

Results? It is the conviction of the committee, meeting in critique session following the exhibit, that so much interest was aroused that it should be repeated at least every two years.

Federal Employment Service aids youth

Many secondary schools, especially those located in the larger urban centers, have appointed job-placement counselors on a full-time or part-time basis. This type of service has been greatly appreciated by their students and by business and industry. It is a worthy service to youth and makes for sound public relations.

There are high schools, of course, that do not have either the vision or the finances to appoint placement officials and yet desire employment service for their graduates and drop-outs. From a description of the services to youth which are made

available by the United States Employment Service, even schools with placement functionaries would be interested in the possibilities for expansion which are suggested. These governmental services are explained in the April, 1953, *Employment Security Review*, of the United States Department of Labor. Included in this issue are discussions concerning co-operation between schools and the Employment Service, preparation for a school program, the counseling of youth by the United States Employment Service, job information, and many other topics of interest to school administrators and especially to those in education who deal with the responsibility of job placement of youth.

Charles E. Odell, chief of the Division of Counseling, Selective Placement and Testing, Bureau of Employment Security, presents in the introduction some highlights of the history of school and Employment Service relations and the purposes of the present program. The following paragraphs are from his statement:

Co-operative working relationships between public employment services and public and private secondary schools have been in existence from the very inception of the public employment service system. New York State had developed a specialized junior placement service and a program for school co-operation long in advance of the passage of the Wagner-Peyser Act. When the act was passed, specific provision was made for "service to juniors" in the language of the bill.

During the depression decade, the United States Employment Service actually granted matching funds to states to partially subsidize school placement services for youth in Providence, Philadelphia, and San Francisco. The National Youth Administration granted large amounts of money to provide junior counselors in local employment offices throughout the 1933–40 period. It was not until 1939, however, that the USES began to examine intensively the need for an overall policy and approach to service to youth and co-operation with schools. In that year the USES completed a joint research project with the American Youth Commission in four areas, the primary objective of which was to evaluate school–Employment Service relationships and to establish uniform policy and approach to meeting the vocational guidance and placement needs of youth. . . .

A nation-wide counseling service was not introduced until 1945, at which time the primary purpose was to carry out the mandate in the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 to "provide effective job counseling and placement services" to World War II Veterans. However, it was not until 1950 that the substantial, unmet needs of school leavers and graduates were given any concentrated attention. The problem was highlighted by studies done by the Bureau of Labor Standards, the Bureau of the Census, and the Bureau of Employment Security. These studies showed that young people under twenty represented only 3.7 per cent of the ES active file but 12.7 per cent of the unemployed as reported by the Census. The study indicated that the young people were generally uninformed concerning the functions and services of the Employment Service and did not make effective use of such services.

Early attempts to deal with these problems by "business as usual" methods of contacting schools, speaking to graduating classes, and newspaper publicity resulted in poor responses or in deluging the local office with school graduates in the first week after graduation. Unable to serve youth effectively on such short notice, local offices were forced to do a slipshod job of registration,

little or no counseling and testing, and very little effective placement work. The result was chaos and a very bad public reaction.

This confusion gave rise to the need for an organized, scheduled, and orderly approach to serving young people entering the labor market. This problem was first discussed with the United States Office of Education and a tentative plan of co-operation between schools and employment services was developed. It was then discussed at length with state supervisors of counseling from forty-three states in Atlantic City in March, 1950. As a result of these meetings, a joint statement of principles was released to the states by both the Employment Service and the Office of Education, in October of 1950, which spelled out the basis for a year-round program of school-Employment Service co-operation.

Briefly, this program calls for contacting graduates well in advance of school leaving and arranging for registration, counseling, and testing so that an active file of school graduates is actually in being before the end of the school year. This makes it possible to solicit job openings through the regular employer relations program and through various types of publicity media. As a result, some school graduates actually have job commitments from employers before they leave school and most of them are saved days, weeks, and months of aimless job shopping and hopping before they get started on the road to the right job.

Drop-outs and diplomas

Acceptance by education of the principle of human variation has made a complex of a hitherto relatively simple concept. Were all pupils alike, the responsibilities of the secondary schools would be relatively light. We could justifiably dismiss from our minds all those who through their own will refused to co-operate in the common process of education for all. Having accepted the fact of individual differences, however, we must vary our practices to meet these differences. This is not a simple matter. It is not simple because of community misunderstanding of our efforts to vary programs and diplomas to meet individual needs and ability to succeed and because of the financial limitations under which most schools must carry on. Aspects of the problem worthy of special comment are presented in two recent articles. The one emphasizes our failure as seen through the eyes of drop-outs. The other analyzes the situation in awarding diplomas at a time when secondary schools are endeavoring to adjust standards to individual variations in ability and communities continue to have the impression that our evaluations of school success are made upon a single basis.

The first reference is "What Have Our Drop-outs Learned?" written by Charles M. Allen, principal of University High School, University of Illinois. Published in *Educational Leadership* for March, 1953, it reports upon a study made in Illinois. Mr. Allen states:

> Most discussions of guidance in the public schools are quite naturally concerned with providing better service for the pupils *in* those schools. But the needs of in-school children and youth can furnish only a partial basis for attacking guidance problems, for in a large number of schools more than half the schools' potential clients are no longer present by the time the high-school Seniors graduate. . . .

Facts similar to these have been reported from a sufficient number of studies so that two conclusions seem inescapable for schools designed to serve all the school-age youth of their communities. First, the number of drop-outs in many schools is sufficiently large so that the needs of the pupils who have withdrawn should be taken into account in improving the school's program. Second, the variation in the proportion of drop-outs from school to school is so great that each school must study its own holding power. . . .

The question may be asked: Were these young people educable? Perhaps they were of such a low order of intelligence that they were not fitted for high-school work.

The information provided by the schools on their drop-outs shows that most of them were of sufficiently high intelligence to do high-school work, although they were heavily concentrated in the below-average part of the range. Only 5 per cent of the boys and 1 per cent of the girls were reported as having intelligence quotients below 75, but 44 per cent of the boys and 38 per cent of the girls had I.Q.'s below 95. . . .

The use of intelligence-test scores as measures of educability has received considerable attention, largely as a result of research findings that such tests provide low scores for children of the lower social classes. These low scores have been found to be reasonably dependable predictors of the success of children of lower social classes in conventional schools, but other types of evidence have indicated that many schools are so organized as to give the best service to children from middle-class families.

In this connection it was found that among the drop-outs considered in the Illinois study, the fathers of 69 per cent of the boys and 75 per cent of the girls were skilled, semiskilled, or unskilled laborers. It seems possible that many of these former students whose parents were near the low end of the socioeconomic scale were more educable than their intelligence-test scores indicate, particularly if one believes that schools should attempt to meet the needs of *all* their clientele.

The most striking conclusion to be drawn from the Illinois holding-power study is that a large proportion of the youth who withdrew had been labeled as failures in the major enterprise of the school—the activity that is built around the classroom.

One implication of these findings for those planning guidance programs is that the potential drop-out should be discovered and provided with counseling before he takes himself finally out of the school. Guidance specialists may be inclined, however, to overlook a second and equally important duty. They must join with others to provide potential school leavers with in-school learning experiences which they will accept as meeting their needs.

Whatever the school's failures in teaching these former students, it has taught them one lesson very effectively: that school is not for them. That they have learned their lesson well is demonstrated by one convincing fact—they are no longer in school.

The second article referred to earlier raises the question of the basis upon which high-school diplomas are awarded to graduates. The meaning of the high-school diploma is in question at a time when secondary schools are endeavoring, because of variations in individual interests, abilities, aptitudes, and achievements, to adjust programs to individuals rather than insisting upon a single path through which all pupils must proceed. In the May, 1953, issue of *California Journal of Secondary Education*, James W. Lloyd, principal of the John Burroughs Junior High School in Los Angeles, presents several statements which offer a sound basis for the

issuance of a diploma. These statements are quoted, following those of his introductory remarks:

The high school diploma—passport, honorable discharge, or certificate of employability—what does it mean? This question, once answered more easily, now has such a variety of meanings that confusion exists on the part of parents, pupils, employers, board of education members, and even teachers and school administrators. Perhaps the time has come to seek a new basis for common understanding and agreement. This is not easily accomplished, because various groups are inclined to interpret the diploma in terms of wishful thinking: what they would like it to mean. The prospective employer wishes that he could count on it at least for preliminary screening, and feels that he has a right to consider it as a certificate of proficiency in the basic skills as a minimum. When, without using the school as a reference, he employs graduates solely on the basis of the diploma and is disappointed, he often concludes that the school system is inadequate. . . .

The following series of statements is proposed as a basis for agreement on the philosophy involved and on the minimum requirements to be demanded in the conferring of the high-school diploma:

1. Our democratic society is dependent on the development of each individual to his maximum capacities, a goal which compulsory attendance laws are established to protect. Today's high schools must therefore accept and undertake to meet the needs of all the children of all the people.
2. It follows that every American youth must be given the opportunity to complete a high-school course in keeping with his capacities, aptitudes, and needs, and to receive a diploma with honor and dignity if he is normal and decent.
3. The diploma shall be conferred on students who (*a*) are good citizens, (*b*) are acceptably proficient, in the light of their capacities, in the ordinary facts, understandings, and skills required for normal living. This proficiency the teachers and principal will judge by their months of instruction of the youth, his effectiveness in the social community of the school, his work, his tests, his plans, and his apparent goal in our economic and social order.
4. The recommended grade in college-preparatory subjects must be given on the basis of standards in keeping with those expected by the state university for entrance requirements.

Assuming that the foregoing offers an acceptable basis for agreement, how may it be accomplished?

First, school administrators and teachers must themselves find it acceptable. Together they should consider the alternatives. There is by no means common agreement among those who are tempted to make use of grades as do university professors who fail students who cannot meet academic requirements, and those who are influenced by such experiences as facing parents of pupils who may have limited scholastic abilities but who may have been denied the diploma despite their sincere efforts to earn it. Principals should take the lead in seeing that there is formal faculty study and discussion of all aspects of the problem, philosophically, and specifically as it may operate in the particular school.

Second, administrators must seek opportunities for presentation of the subject before the citizens of their respective communites. People in general must be made more thoroughly aware of the public school's legal and moral responsibility for meeting the needs of all, and of the implications arising from compulsory attendance laws. They must understand why the diploma cannot mean the same specific accomplishment for all pupils. Perhaps parents may in time be brought to focus their thoughts less on the ceremony of graduation and more on the significance of the graduate's transcript. At commencement time the principal can em-

phasize the point that many different talents and abilities are represented in the graduating class and that graduates are not forced into a common mold although they may be expected to adhere to those ideals of citizenship and loyalty which all youth should have in common. Employers, in particular, need to be informed of the service available to them from schools as sources of reference on graduates. Thus they should not rely solely on the fact of graduation, but many obtain an individualized interpretation of the diploma in the particular case. It should not be difficult for them to understand that even with ability in such basic skills as mathematics and English, a student may not necessarily be equipped to do much of the world's work.

In this connection there is an implied obligation for schools to maintain records of each student's character traits, citizenship, and participation in school activities and service supplementing the grade transcript, thus making possible more effective interpretation of the diploma when requests are received from prospective employers.

Study in foreign countries With the international situation what it is and with the responsibility which this places upon all of us, including teen-agers, to understand the foreign situation, any opportunity to obtain firsthand information should be of interest to educators. Though the plan which comes to the writer's attention serves college youth, it might stimulate high schools to provide similar opportunities for their pupils, or school systems to do so, through near-by colleges or universities, for their teachers and staff members.

The American College Council for Summer Study Abroad, sponsored by thirteen colleges in collaboration with the Bureau of University Travel in Newton, Massachusetts, has been organized for the purpose of giving American college students the opportunity to combine serious academic study with summer residence in foreign countries, to the enhancement of both. The colleges responsible for the organization of the Council are Amherst, Barnard, Bryn Mawr, University of Chicago, Mount Holyoke, Oberlin, Radcliffe, Randolph-Macon, Scripps, Swarthmore, Sweet Briar, Vassar, and University of Virginia.

The Council will sponsor a limited number of summer courses offered (*a*) by two or more member colleges jointly; (*b*) by individual member colleges; (*c*) by the Council itself, the professor in charge to be appointed by the Council with preference given to members of the faculties of member institutions. The normal duration of the courses will be six weeks, and, except in such cases as geology and architecture, the period of study will normally be spent in a single place of residence. Most of the courses will be concerned with the social sciences, history, the fine arts, and intermediate language study.

At a meeting in New York on May 15, 1953, the deans of the member colleges and the Bureau of University Travel completed plans for the organization and administration of the courses to be offered abroad during the summer of 1954. An executive committee, chaired by F. Champion Ward, dean of the College at the Uni-

versity of Chicago, assisted by representatives from Amherst, Barnard, Bryan Mawr, and Mount Holyoke, was appointed to represent the Council in forming final plans for course offerings and faculty for 1954 and for the publication of a brochure to be made available to member and other colleges during the autumn.

Tentative course offerings for the summer of 1954 (in the event that similar courses are not being offered in a European university) are: France—"International Relations," "French History"; England—"British Economy and Politics," "Medieval Language and Literature"; Italy—"Italian Art"; Spain—"Spanish Art." The Council also concurs in plans made by the University of Chicago to offer an "intermediate" foreign-language course in either Spain, France, or Germany; and a course in "History of Western Civilization" in England.

College students from member or other colleges will be admitted according to the requirements set by the member or members offering each course and approved by the Council. Members of each study group must be approved by the professor in charge of the group.

The professor in charge of each study group will send to the college or university of each student a transcript of that student's record. In addition, the Bureau of University Travel will maintain a permanent file of all transcripts. Accreditation of such study abroad will be at the discretion of the student's college.

Tuition charges will be set by the college or colleges offering each summer course, or by the Council in the case of courses offered by it, subject to the general stipulation that the Council and all the activities sponsored by it shall be on a nonprofit basis. Arrangements for travel and residence abroad and for trips while in Europe will be made by the Bureau of University Travel. Fees for these services will be set by the Bureau in consultation with the Council, on a nonprofit basis.

Persons wishing a copy of the brochure or further information may address their inquiries to Bureau of University Travel, 11 Boyd Street, Newton, Massachusetts.

Youth and citizenship The fact that a large number of citizens do not vote must be difficult for adolescents to understand. But they, too, may grow up to the legal age for voting and not exercise their franchise. The schools need to do something more than decry the present lack of interest in voting or merely admonish youngsters to be better citizens when they are given this privilege. The publication of the Evanston (Illinois) Township High School, *Here's Your High School* for May, 1953, reports upon an experience which will interest many other schools. The account reads:

> Real voting machines, regular registration procedures, student clerks, and judges of election brought out a record participation this spring in the ETHS student council elections.

The election was part of the Citizenship Education Committee's program to stimulate greater interest in student government and to provide, through a school election, a realistic voting experience.

Eighty-six per cent of the student body registered, and 89 per cent of those who registered voted, a better record than their elders usually turn in. Over 400 students learned how to serve as judges or clerks of elections. Two thousand students received instruction in how to use a voting machine. Fifty students received special training in the operation and care of real voting machines.

The student elections were only one phase of a program which ETHS, under the faculty leadership of Miss Gertrude Aitchison, has embarked upon to make citizenship education more realistic to the student body in general and the ninth-grade social-studies classes, in particular.

With this goal in mind, the committee organized, with the help of officials of the Evanston city government, other laboratory experiences in various departments of our local government. Students, meeting with Joseph L. Rose, commissioner of public works, heard how the tax dollar is divided, what the commissioner's duties are, how they would go about getting a job in his department.

The township assessor, Charles Rohrer, took the students into the field to show them how various types of buildings are assessed, valuable knowledge for future taxpayers. Students learned about sidewalk repairs and alley paving from the city engineer, James Mohring, about zoning problems from the building commissioner, Edwin Goodman.

Members of the police department explained why they had supported the eighteen-year-old driving proposal and how it feels to be a policeman.

A day in Municipal Court with a chance to discuss the cases later with the attorneys offered another insight into government. A re-enactment of an actual City Council meeting in the City Council Chambers found representatives from each of the social-studies classes acting as council members, clerks, and corporation counsel.

Before each laboratory field trip students received instruction in what they were to see and do. Evaluations followed in successive classes. As a result ninth-graders at ETHS, thanks to our city officials, have more than a textbook appreciation of what it takes to make our local government tick.

Why don't students do their best? Another item in the same issue of *Here's Your High School* reports a study of students' own ideas of the reasons for their failure to do their best in school. Our readers will be interested in comparing these reasons with the conclusions reached by G. E. Anspaugh in the article "Qualities Related to High Scholarship in Secondary School," which appears in later pages of this issue of the *School Review*.

The story from *Here's Your High School* reads:

Lack of study and poor study habits were the main reasons which a selected group of Sophomores gave to Mr. Walter Rasmussen, ETHS counselor, as the reasons they were not living up to their potential academic abilities.

Mr. Rasmussen asked thirty-three Sophomores ranking above the median in potential academic ability to rate themselves. Of this group twenty-nine said they were not working up to ability. Four said they were doing the best they could. After pitting the ratings against test results, Mr. Rasmussen found that three of the first group were wrong.

Eleven students gave lack of study as a basic reason for not achieving; twelve blamed it on poor study habits. Poor plan-

ning and organization were a close runner-up. Poor reading habits were fourth in line.

Humble parents will be relieved to know that they did not fare too badly. Nobody blamed parents as a major reason. Three students, however, listed poor home conditions as a contributing factor for failure to achieve. Three students felt they had inadequate places to study at home. Television and dislike of teachers tied with two students apiece. Four disliked the subjects they were taking. Seven students felt too many extracircular activities cut in on their academic work.

Learning to give intelligently

Citizenship responsibility is more than exercising privileges such as voting. Teen-agers are members of a community and should be given every opportunity to know and to feel this relationship. During the months of September and October most communities engage in campaigns for funds for Red Feather charitable organizations. This is a season when emphasis is upon giving instead of receiving as is so common throughout the year in a prosperous and highly blessed nation.

As good citizens we should be concerned with intelligent giving, which provides services for the unfortunate yet worthy. Giving intelligently implies not only that we share what we possess but that we acquire some insights into how the funds are distributed and for what purposes. High-school pupils might well be given an opportunity to observe the work of reviewing committees of Community Chests as well as that conducted by governmental agencies.

The campaign literature of the Red Feather organization this year supplies answers to questions which individuals naturally raise—among them some which might prove of especial value to high-school pupils:

Do you know which appeals really deserve your support? There is a National Information Bureau (nonprofit, nonsectarian, and completely objective) from which your town's Chamber of Commerce, Better Business Bureau, or Community Chest can check on the efficiency and worth-whileness of the major charitable appeals. Your club, your firm, or you, as an individual, have a right to this information. Never give to an appeal, whether through the mail, over the telephone, or in a canister on a counter, unless you are fully informed about it, from a source you can trust. Budgets of agencies in your Community Chest or United Fund are open to the public, and "come-see" tours are available for anyone who wishes to see the work.

After posing the question, "Do you know what's the best way for you to give?" the Red Feather literature supplies the following answer. It may be pointed out, however, that some of the largest and best-known social-service agencies do not agree that the Community Chest or United Fund offers the best means of obtaining public support for all social-service activities in a community.

Giving the "united way" through your local Community Chest or United Fund has proved to be the best method so far devised. It provides a real service to you, the contributor, in keeping down campaign costs, and in making sure that your money goes only to community service programs which are necessary and important. The "united way" assures you that the budgets of each

agency in the group have been carefully reviewed and pruned by volunteer committees made up of experts in finance and community planning, just as carefully (more so, perhaps!) as you go over your own family budget. The "united way" eliminates duplication of agency services, and maintains high standards of board and staff.

Home-Study Courses

THE IDEA of education on one's own through such remote supervision as is provided by home-study courses has many arguments in its favor. In the past the one unfortunate aspect about this method of schooling has been the presence of many unprofessional schools which operated along with the many soundly professional ones. And just how was the unsuspecting student or educator to know the one type from the other?

An announcement which was released last June gives promise of a brighter day and should be of genuine interest to high-school counselors who advise students about such courses and to administrators who anticipate expanding their own school curriculums through affiliation with a school which offers home-study courses. The announcement reads:

An Accreditation Commission will be set up by the National Home Study Council to review and accredit correspondence courses, Dr. Homer Kempfer, executive director, has announced.

Preliminary plans were developed at the Twenty-seventh Annual Meeting of the Council held in June, 1953. The commission, consisting of nine outstanding educators, will promulgate rules and regulations for the evaluation and accreditation of home-study schools and courses.

Under the plan being developed, inspection committees will gather information periodically by personal visit to schools seeking accreditation. The reports will be reviewed and accreditation granted or denied by the commission.

The National Home Study Council, consisting of forty private correspondence schools, is the only voluntary organization devoted to promoting sound educational standards and ethical business practices within the private home study field. It has accredited home study schools for many years, but the Accreditation Commission represents a distinct new step in developing higher educational standards.

More than 1,500,000 students were actively enrolled in home-study courses during 1952. This project ought ultimately to help improve materially the quality of education of millions of Americans for decades to come.

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

Who's Who for September

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by Robert C. Woellner, associate professor of education, assistant dean of students, and director of vocational guidance and placement at the University of Chicago. Robert J. Havighurst, professor of education and chairman of the Committee on Human Development at the University of Chicago, points out some of the problems and conflicts faced by the thirteen-year-olds on their way to adulthood, and he gives suggestions to parents and teachers for helping the young people during this trying period. G. E. Anspaugh, formerly principal of Sullivan High School, Chicago, gives the results of a questionnaire study of students in the upper and the lower 15 per cent of eight graduating classes, designed to determine what conditions or qualities are conducive to, or indicative of, success in high school. S. V. Martorana, associate professor of education and consultant for junior colleges at the State College of Washington, Pullman, Washington, gives an overview of the junior-college movement in Canada, pointing out its similarity to, and differences from, the movement in the United States. Melvin A. Angell, education specialist with the United States Naval Personnel Research Unit, San Diego, California, writes about a study of the validity of high-school English as prerequisite for admission to college. Richard A. Barnes, chairman of the Department of Education at Augustana College, Rock Island, Illinois, points out some steps to make teaching more attractive and to keep up the quality of teachers, which would help to alleviate the teacher shortage without sacrificing teacher quality. Percival W. Hutson, professor of education at the University of Pittsburgh, and Kenneth D. Norberg, associate professor of education and coordinator of audio-visual services at Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California, present a list of selected references on guidance.

Reviewers of books Mitford M. Mathews, editor, Dictionary Department of the University of Chicago Press and professorial lecturer in the Department of Linguistics, University of Chicago. Edna Lue Furness, associate professor of education, College of Education, University of Wyoming. Bryan F. Swan, teacher in the Laboratory School, University of Chicago.

POISED AT THE CROSSROADS OF LIFE

SUGGESTIONS TO PARENTS AND TEACHERS OF YOUNG ADOLESCENTS

ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST
University of Chicago

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THIRTEEN is probably not the most pleasant age in life, either from the adult's point of view or that of the child. Certainly, adults prefer the "golden age" of ten or the altruism and budding soberness of sixteen. They like the wide-open and receptive and respectful mind of the ten-year-old and his relatively modest personal habits. They also like the new-found responsibility of sixteen, with its maidenly beauty in girls or its forecast of manliness and stability in boys. Adults do not like the impulsiveness, the irritability, the hostility, and the unbalanced physical turmoil of puberty in the thirteen-year-old.

From the standpoint of the child, the experience of the pubescent years is not the most pleasant part of growing up. Probably few adults, if asked to think of the three-year period which they enjoyed most, would name the age of twelve to fourteen, the junior high school age. In fact, it appears probable that most adults have extremely dim memories of their own lives during these three years. True to the principle that we forget selectively the things which were least pleasant in our experience, most of us are probably amnesic about our own puberty.

The age of twelve to fourteen is the age when the child tries to be his own master but is often the slave of ill-controlled impulse. It is the age when pretty little girls grow big and ungainly, before they round out and become womanly. During these years, boys' voices become harsh and discordant, and the boys themselves are slovenly and insolent to their elders.

Nevertheless, this junior high school age is a time when important events take place in the design of a life. Not only in our own society is this a turning point in life. In most "primitive" societies this age, or the slightly later one of fourteen to fifteen, is the age of initiation into adult rights and duties for boys, of the puberty ceremony for girls which marks their entry into womanhood.

Up to now the child's life has followed a simple path, directed by the family and hedged in and protected by the school. Now, at twelve to fourteen, the road ahead of the boy or girl

branches and goes in many directions. The youth stands poised at the crossroads of life. Within the next year or two, choices must be made that will determine which of these roads he will follow. He has elective subjects in school which are the first steps in his choosing a vocation: Shall he take algebra or general mathematics, foreign language or a commercial course, agriculture or a college-preparatory course?

He makes choices of friends, now choosing and being chosen from a more variegated social group than the boys and girls he knew in his neighborhood or in his elementary school. By choosing certain persons for friends and not choosing others, he subjects himself to the powerful character-forming pressures of a particular peer culture. He chooses to go or not to go to church, and which church. All the while he is making moral choices—to smoke or not to smoke, to "loaf" or not to "loaf" at a particular soda fountain, to save his money or to spend it. His ego ideal is becoming firm. He is beginning to get a clear picture of the kind of person he wants to be.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THIRTEEN-YEAR-OLDS

Physical characteristics.—Girls at thirteen are near the peak of puberty. Most girls begin to menstruate within four months of their thirteenth birthday and at this age are growing rapidly. Since they start their pubertal growth spurt a year or two before boys do, thirteen-year-old girls tend to be bigger than the boys in their classes. This makes them feel awkward and out of place unless they are grouped with boys a year or so older than themselves. At this age girls are getting used to the facts of menstruation and are coming to think of themselves as women.

Boys at thirteen are just beginning to sprout. Some have not started to mature in any way, and they are likely to be worried about their lack of height and weight. They begin to wonder whether they are really normal. "Will I ever be heavy enough for football?" they ask, or "Will I grow tall enough to play basketball?" At this age the smaller boys tend to stay away from girls, who seem so much more grown-up. They watch their own bodies anxiously and compare themselves with their age mates to detect signs of manhood.

During this period girls and boys alike are working at the developmental task of accepting their physiques. It is at this time that they learn what kind of body they will have during the rest of their lives. If their body is a fashionable one in size and shape, they become proud of themselves and enter with self-confidence into the other tasks of growing up. However, if they discover that their bodies are unfashionable, they have the difficult task of accepting these bodies and making the most of them. This task is especially difficult for those who mature a year or two or three behind the average of the group. They begin to wonder whether they are "normal."

If young adolescents are having difficulty accepting their bodies, this difficulty will probably show up in symptoms not outwardly related to their physical condition. A girl may retreat to the side lines and let others play the game of life, while she makes a show of being indifferent to the social life of her contemporaries. A boy may do likewise, or he may behave in just the opposite manner, swaggering around with a cigarette in his mouth, talking loudly, contradicting his elders—all things which bolster his uncertain ego.

On the other hand, a boy whose body is changing normally or who is secure in his acceptance of his body will soon settle into the stability and responsibility of later adolescence, achieving the other tasks of this age more readily because of the self-confidence he gets from his adequate physical development.

Mental characteristics.—By Grades VII–VIII a child has reached a mental level that enables him to participate in all the ordinary activities of modern life. He can read the newspaper, purchase tickets for the various means of transportation and for commercial amusements, make ordinary purchases at stores, and, in general, take care of himself. He can read, write, spell, and calculate as well as can the average adult.

Fully as important for his feeling of self-assurance, he has grasped the reality of the physical world. His mind has taken the measure of space and time. He has some conception of the size and shape of the earth and some sense of time perspective, so that he can differentiate between ten centuries ago and two centuries ago. In a word, he feels safe in the physical space of his home town and also in the space-time of the universe.

Having reached this stage, the mind of the thirteen-year-old makes some sharp changes. Whereas, for the ten-year-old, who is attempting to take the measure of the world by piling fact on fact, one fact is as good as another, the thirteen-year-old has to see some use in a fact before it is to be worth his while to learn it. A fifth-grade teacher can set off a burst of activity by just asking his pupils to find out whether a giraffe has vocal chords. The children will read encyclopedias, pester their parents, and telephone the zoo-keeper to get the answer to this curious and useless question. But a junior high school pupil will not bestir himself about a question unless it has some relevance to his own interests.

What has happened in the mind of the older child is that he has acquired enough general knowledge about the world and wants now to put reality to use for himself. He is selective in his interests. If he likes to swim, he will get interested in a book about underwater swimming and diving, while another boy may be quite uninterested in this subject. One girl may become interested in dress designing and read all the fashion magazines and books on costumes that she can find, while another girl may be just as much interested in reading about horses.

The thirteen-year-old, unlike the

ten-year-old will not accept just *any* suggestion the teacher or parent makes about what he should learn. The adult must study the child in order to find out what kinds of things will interest him.

At the same time that his mind becomes selective in its direction, the young adolescent begins to look for a basic reality beneath the surface of things. There is nothing mysterious or mystical about this. The child's mind threatens to become cluttered up with miscellaneous knowledge, and he is ready for some rules to order it with. Therefore he is ready for algebra, which gives him rules for dealing with numbers, and for science, which begins to organize his knowledge of nature.

The mind of the thirteen-year-old is also beginning to take on a certain suppleness which allows him to make *mental experiments*. He can, for example, imagine what an electric fan would do if directed at a pile of dust in a vacuum. Soon he will be ready for *logical experiments*, where he may assume something to be true for the sake of the argument even though he knows that it is probably not true. This kind of thinking gets him ready for the abstract thinking of demonstrative geometry.

Social characteristics.—The junior high school age is, above all, the age of sociability. It is a time when attraction of the individual to the group is maximum. Boys and girls spend as much of their time as possible in groups, small or large and usually quite informal unless influenced by an adult, such as a Scout leader. The groups usually include children of one sex only, although toward the close of this period a mixed-sex group is preferred part of the time. The group is sometimes called a "crowd," sometimes a "gang."

Some years ago, in Oakland, California, a "clubhouse" or social center was established next door to a junior high school for the use of a class that was being studied during its junior high school career. The plan was to leave the young people pretty much to themselves and to observe what they did in their leisure time.[1]

The boys and girls cared little for adult-organized activities, such as an arts-and-crafts program and a dramatics group. What they wanted was less rigid, more changeable and fluid. The girls set the pattern of social dancing in Grades VIII–IX, with the boys sitting around the room and watching. Then a few of the bolder boys began to dance, first with each other, and then with girls. Generally, though, the boys played checkers, read magazines, listened to the radio, or just sat and talked, but always close to where the others were dancing.

Those who were most active in reaching out for contacts with their age mates were most antagonistic toward adults. But this was a passing phase, for a year or so later the same

[1] Herbert R. Stolz, Mary Cover Jones, and Judith Chaffey, "The Junior High School Age," *University High School Journal*, XV (January, 1937), 63–72.

boys and girls who had been so distant and almost antagonistic toward teachers and club leaders were the first ones to "warm up" to adults and to "hang around" them as though they needed something from them.

The fact that the girls were more mature in their social interest than the boys was indicated both by their actual behavior and by their preference for social activities. For instance, from diaries that the boys and girls kept it was learned that, in the second semester of Grade VIII, 80 per cent of the girls had spent time dancing, compared with 30 per cent of the boys; 65 per cent of the boys had attended club or Scout meetings in contrast with 35 per cent of the girls; and 50 per cent of the boys had engaged in shopwork, compared with 10 per cent of the girls. When asked, "Of these three activities—swimming, playing ball, and going to parties—which do you like best?" 45 per cent of the eighth-grade girls preferred going to parties, compared with 8 per cent of the boys.

Another question was, "Of these three activities—going to a movie, reading a story, and dancing—which do you like best?" At the age of twelve, reading was preferred by 35 per cent of each sex, but the interest in reading dropped markedly during the next two years. Interest in movies increased for both sexes, but 70 per cent of the fourteen-year-old girls preferred dancing to both of the other activities.

Girls at the junior high school age are becoming interested in the feminine social role, which involves attention to their hair and nails and the use of cosmetics, shopping for clothes, dancing, and associating with boys. Boys are slower to adopt the adult masculine social role, retaining for a year or two longer their little-boy interests in pets, reading, and playing active games with other boys. By about fourteen the average boy is changing his interests. He wants to learn to drive a car; he becomes active in sports; and he likes to frequent places where girls will be found, though he is not yet ready for dating.

Relations with parents and teachers.—Girls and boys alike are working during the junior high school age at their developmental tasks of getting along with age mates of the opposite sex and of learning an adult masculine or feminine sex role. While they are working at these tasks, they seem ridiculous in the eyes of their elders; they appear to waste a great deal of time that they might spend more profitably in studying or in earning money; they are often antagonistic toward parents and teachers.

As soon, however, as they achieve these developmental tasks (by about the age of fifteen for girls and approximately a year later for boys), young people become happier and pleasanter to teach and to have around the house. They become more stable, and adults say that they have "settled down."

The progress through the age range of twelve to fourteen is, then, characteristically marked by the child's losing his sense of deference to adults—going through a period of negativism

toward them and emerging with a renewed feeling of respect and admiration for parents and teachers but no longer dependent on them. The adolescent is trying to become emotionally independent of his parents and other adults. By the age of fifteen he has made important progress toward this goal, and he usually succeeds in achieving this independence by the age of eighteen to twenty.

The years of junior high school are marked by children's ambivalent feelings toward adults. The child still feels dependent on them and knows that he will need their help at times when the world is rough on him, but his very feelings of weakness cause him often to put on a show of bravado—a spurious independence which hides a real feeling of insecurity in his attempt to establish himself as one who can take charge of his own life.

The ideal self.—Everyone carries about an image of his ideal self—the person he would like to be. With growing boys and girls, this ideal self, or ego ideal, goes through an evolution. At first the ideal self is usually the parent of the same sex. Then, by the age of ten or so, the parent is supplanted by the "glamorous" adult—the movie star, professional athlete, airplane pilot, or even a character in a comic strip, such as Superman. Boys and girls like to imagine themselves beautiful and powerful and clever like those glamorous figures. By the age of thirteen or fourteen, they begin to lose interest in the distant, inaccessible, glamorous person and, instead, begin to think of themselves as like some visible, attractive young adult who is near enough to them to be observed in the flesh. Through observing this person week after week and noting how he or she behaves in work and play, the youth is forming his own code of values and making choices of the roads that he wants his life to follow. The youth is working on his developmental task of forming a philosophy of life.

HELPFUL KINDS OF RELATIONS WITH ADULTS

Thus it is clear that boys and girls in the years of puberty are going through a phase of life which changes them from dependent children to independent young adults. During this phase their relations with adults undergo a revolution, but they do not become independent of adults overnight. They need adults in certain relations to themselves, relations which they do not understand and cannot ask for, and which adults themselves do not altogether understand.

The need for attractive young adults as models.—Most of the important nonintellectual elements of personal growth are *caught* rather than *taught*. The child learns more through example than through precept. Early in life the child learns to imitate those who have prestige in his sight and with whom he feels an emotional bond. This habit of imitation is so deeply ingrained that adults are no longer conscious of it, but it persists throughout life.

As we have already said, at puberty the youth becomes interested in the young adults whom he sees in the community around him, and he chooses one or more of them to imitate. They may be teachers, club leaders, church workers, or neighbors. Often they do not know how important their influence is, but they are the most effective guides for youth at the crossroads of life, more effective in some ways than parents are for this age group.

Consequently, it is important that boys and girls be brought into contact with wholesome, attractive young adults. Adults in charge of selecting school teachers, Scout leaders, church youth-group leaders, and Four-H club leaders are indirectly exerting a potent influence on the youth of the community.

Relations with parents and teachers.—However distant or even hostile a youth of this age may seem toward adults, he cannot stand indifference from them. He wants their interest and their help, but only on certain terms. He is ambivalent toward them. One day he wants them to let him act for himself, to prove that he is growing up and can be independent. The next day he wants them to step in and protect him from the mistakes he has made in his awkward attempts to grow up.

Stern, dominant parents can break a child's spirit at this point. They still have the power to dominate him. They are physically and economically and morally his superiors. He must yield if they insist on telling him how he is to spend his spare time, what friends he shall have, and how he shall dress. And he finds a treacherous comfort in yielding to them. By yielding, he becomes a child again and gets the rewards that come with being a child. His parents will pet him, and care for his needs, and make the difficult decisions for him. But he will not grow up. Consequently it is bad for both child and adult if the adult is too stern and unyielding in the exercise of his authority.

On the other hand, weak, permissive parents can let a child down at this point. By allowing him to have too much of his own way, they may do him harm in two respects. He may be allowed to make serious mistakes, and he may get the impression that his parents do not really care for him. After all, he is still a child, and in his heart he knows this, although he cannot often admit this fact to adults or to himself. If the adults who are most important in his life do not seem to care whether he makes mistakes, he may lose his own uncertain and slowly developing sense of security.

Adults set limits.—Growing up is partly a matter of pushing out the limits of one's freedom of action. But there must always be limits for the child, who knows that he is not strong or wise enough to govern himself completely. He counts on his parents and teachers to set the limits for him. Knowing that they have set safe limits, he then feels easy in operating freely within those limits.

A good teacher knows this and

practices it in his relations with his pupils in Grade III as well as in Grade VIII or IX, but he widens the limits for older children. He expects junior high school pupils to take more responsibility for planning their school work, for independent study, for managing school activities. A good parent does likewise. He allows his thirteen-year-old daughter much more leeway than she had at ten. But he still sets the limits, and she relies on his doing so.

In general, it is best if the limits are wide, provided the dangers within those limits are not too great. For example, it is better to give junior high school boys and girls freedom to go out after dark then to forbid this, but the community must be safe for them. The "night spots" which they frequent must be reasonably wholesome, and the streets must be safe. Hence, the process of setting limits involves the process of making the environment within those limits a safe place for youth to grow up in. Parents will usually do better to band together to make the community a good place than to spend the same energy in keeping watch over their children to prevent them from getting into trouble in an undesirable community environment.

Setting the limits, therefore, includes creating a good environment for work, play, and study. It means making sure that the community has a good library for youth and good recreation facilities. It means insisting that the conditions in the home be conducive to study and preventing the radio or television from undermining study habits. It means providing job opportunities for boys and girls. It means encouraging youth activities and finding the best leaders for them.

Although thirteen is not the happiest age, nor the golden age as seen by adults, every child must go through it, and the normal youngster goes through it with some tribulation for himself and for everybody else. But his own uncertainty and the baffled feelings of parents and teachers in dealing with him are merely symptoms of the fact that important events are taking place in his life as he stands at the frontier of adulthood, with the happiness of a lifetime at stake.

QUALITIES RELATED TO HIGH SCHOLARSHIP IN SECONDARY SCHOOL

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*

SELECTED PUPILS from the successive graduating classes during four years at Sullivan High School in Chicago were given a questionnaire in an effort to determine the qualities and activities which distinguished the best graduating students from those who received the lowest marks. About 1,100 students were included in these eight classes, and the questionnaire was filled in by the top-ranking 15 per cent and by the bottom-ranking 15 per cent of each class. Thus about 165 superior students and 165 inferior students were considered in the study.

REASONS OFTEN ASSIGNED FOR POOR SCHOLARSHIP

The questions asked these boys and girls were chosen because they concerned comments frequently heard from teachers and parents as to the probable causes of good or poor work done by high-school pupils. Such remarks as the following are referred to:

He does very well considering his low I.Q.

What can you expect from a girl who never gives any service to the school?

How can a boy do good work when he is absent so often from school?

The poor girl has a stepmother. How could she do good work?

He has no brothers or sisters, and that deprives him of so many chances to pick up information and help.

If he did not waste so much time with his fraternity affairs, he would get better grades.

He has so many dates! I don't see how he gets any school work done at all.

No wonder his grades are poor! His parents are heathenish; they never go to church.

If he belonged to a good organization like the Boy Scouts, the A.Z.A. [A Jewish youth organization], the Hi-Y, or the Catholic Youth Organization, he would be subject to better influences and would do better in school.

If he had his own study desk in a quiet place in his home, he would be a better student.

There is too much money in that family; no wonder the children amount to nothing.

The poor girl works so much to provide money for the family that she never finds time to do any homework.

Most readers will have definite opinions about the effects of the conditions referred to in these quotations, and the writer had such opinions. On some points his expectations were not realized.

TYPES OF QUESTIONS ASKED

No attempt was made to be scientific in the setup of this study, but the boys and girls were assured that no at-

tempt would be made to determine the authorship of any of the papers. In all probability, true answers were given.

The questions were so prepared that one of three degrees of the quality or condition being considered could be indicated. Thus, the questions on two topics were phrased as follows:

Is there always plenty of money for the needs of your family? ———

Is there usually plenty of money? ———

Is there a frequent shortage of money in your home? ———

Do you live with both your natural parents? ———

Do you live with only one of your natural parents? ———

Do you live with neither of your natural parents? ———

EFFECTS OF VARIOUS FACTORS

Intelligence.—All the students who answered the questionnaire reported their rank in class. Since many did not know their intelligence quotients or percentile ranks in intelligence, the median intelligence quotient of each group was determined from records in the personnel files. No child with an intelligence quotient below 100 was found among the 165 children in the upper groups. Since the median intelligence quotient of Sullivan High School students is about 115, this fact was not surprising. On the other hand, several pupils with intelligence quotients above 140 were found in the lower group. In general, however, the results were about what one would expect. The median intelligence quotient of the pupils in the lower group was about 109, and of those in the upper group nearly 123.

The fact that an occasional pupil with an intelligence quotient between 100 and 105 was found in the upper group has much significance for the teacher, because it points to what may be accomplished with properly motivated pupils of average intelligence if their study and learning habits are well developed. The price paid for lack of motivation and of good work habits is indicated by the presence in the lower group of several very bright boys and girls.

Membership in religious and social organizations.—Attendance at religious services by pupils who replied to the questionnaire, or by their parents, showed no significant correlation with the quality of school work done, nor did active membership of parents in the parent-teachers' association. Membership in the social clubs often known as fraternities and sororities seemed to have no influence; nor did membership in a religiously affiliated group.

Home conditions.—Contrary to the nearly universal belief of teachers, a quiet place at home to do school work had no effect. Those who reported having good working conditions in their homes were found as often in the lower as in the upper group.

Boys and girls who were living with only one or with neither natural parent were found as often among superior as among inferior students. The existence or nonexistence of brothers

or sisters had no apparent relation to class rank.

Service to the school.—A much higher per cent of good students than of poor ones was found among those who had been giving extensive service to the school. However, since sponsors of service organizations are constantly seeking good students for their organizations, poorer students do not have the same service-giving opportunities as do their more successful fellows. If a causal relationship exists between giving service and earning good marks, it is probable that the latter is the cause; the former, the result.

Absence from school.—On the average, the top 15 per cent of the graduates of the eight classes studied had been absent from school only about one-fourth as many days as had those in the lowest 15 per cent. Such a result would be expected by all teachers. It should be pointed out, however, that influences other than the fact of absence itself have weight in this connection. Ill health often causes both absence and poor marks; parental indifference might be a common cause of both; and the necessity to earn money might contribute to both absence and poor marks.

Frequency of dating.—Frequent dating was rather more common among poor students than among good ones. No pupil who reported having had, on the average, more than three dates a week during the Junior and the Senior years was found in the upper group, although several of the superior students, to the writer's knowledge, had been "going steady" for a year or more.

Outside employment.—Working for pay seemed to have great significance with respect to the marks received. Students in the lower group had been working four or five times as many hours per week, on the average, as had the best students. It might be thought that poor living conditions to be found in homes from which came the young people who worked most hours a week could account for the poor school work. In the case of many pupils, however, who worked fifteen or more hours a week, there was no financial need; the children worked because the parents considered work for pay to be an excellent preparation for adult life. Since few young people brought up in highly work-conscious homes planned to go to college, the stimulus of rank in class, teacher recommendations for college entrance, and similar incentives was lacking to them. There was no clear indication that doing a moderate amount of work for pay, up to ten hours weekly, had an effect on school marks. However, little work outside school was reported by pupils in the top 5 per cent of the classes.

Study at home.—The number of hours a week spent on school work at home had a high correlation with school marks. The pupils in the top 5 per cent of the classes reported from ten to twenty hours of homework per week, while those in the bottom 5 per cent rarely studied at home for more than two hours, or so, per week. In general, the upper group spent about

five times as many hours on homework as did those with inferior marks.

No class of the eight studied showed a departure from the trends reported by the writer. This fact lends considerable validity to the several statements made.

CONCLUSIONS

Although, in drawing conclusions from the data given above, we must avoid falling into that most common of errors in thinking, *post hoc, ergo, propter hoc*, and although the study lacks some of the requirements for statistical reliability, it seems highly probable that possessing high intelligence, giving extensive service, attending school regularly, restricting dating to eight or ten times a month, not working for pay more than ten hours a week, and engaging in a considerable amount of regular homework are conditions having rather high correlations with school marks. And, according to this study, it seems equally probable that living with both natural parents, having brothers or sisters, belonging to a "fraternity" or "sorority," attending church or synagogue regularly, holding membership in an organization with religious affiliation, having a quiet place to study, and coming from a wealthy or from a financially poor family have little or no relation to school marks.

If teachers will adapt their assignments and individual teaching techniques to the intelligence of their pupils, if an extensive school service setup is provided, if regular attendance is insisted on, if too frequent dating is prevented, if adequate homework is secured, and if excessive working on out-of-school jobs is denied, it would appear that the school and the school community will have provided optimum conditions for good schoolwork. In other than these matters, the quality of school marks will doubtless be determined by the general tone and educational morale of the school, the community, and the individual homes from which the boys and girls come.

THE COMMUNITY-COLLEGE MOVEMENT IN CANADA

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THE development of junior colleges or community colleges in the United States has become clearly defined as a concrete educational movement, which has extended over a period of more than fifty years and has resulted in the establishment of some six hundred institutions which identify themselves with the movement. Furthermore, certain definite social and economic forces which have brought about the emergence of community colleges have been identified and analyzed by students of the outgrowth.[1]

The same social, economic, and educational pressures which stimulated the development of junior colleges in the United States apparently have been operative in Canada. The results of the widespread and advanced technological practices in industry, commerce, and agriculture can be seen increasingly in the latter nation. Population changes similar to those which have occurred in the United States have taken place in Canada. There, also, secondary-school educational opportunity for youth has been popularized to a high degree. As a result, an increasingly larger fraction of the college-age population is becoming eligible for post-high-school education.

Cumulatively, these factors are influencing Canadian education so that increasing numbers of localities are reviewing the feasibility and desirability of establishing junior colleges or community colleges. This article presents a brief account of the present extent of development of the community-college movement in Canada, some evidences of newer and wider interest in the movement, and some suggestions whereby the program in Canada can profit from the experience of the fifty-year-old junior-college movement in the United States.

[1] See the following references:

a) Leonard V. Koos, *The Junior College Movement*. New York: Ginn & Co., 1925.

b) Walter C. Eells, *The Junior College*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931.

c) Leonard V. Koos, *Integrating High School and College*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946.

d) John A. Sexson and John W. Harbeson, *The New American College*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946.

e) Jesse P. Bogue, *The Community College*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950.

PAST DEVELOPMENT AND PRESENT STATUS

The junior-college movement in Canada has not been a spectacular one. Earliest reference to a Canadian junior college made in the *Junior College Journal*, official organ of the American Association of Junior Colleges, appeared in June, 1931, in an article describing the Canadian Junior College—a college which was being operated under the auspices of the Seventh Day Adventist Church in Alberta. Opened originally as a secondary school, the institution in 1919 took action to provide the first courses of a college program, and facilities were added for operation of a junior college in conjunction with the secondary program.[2]

The directory of junior colleges, which has been published annually since 1931 by the American Association of Junior Colleges, provides scant information on the Canadian junior-college movement before 1943. No report at all on Canada was included in the first directory, published in January, 1931. The 1932 directory, however, reported the presence of three institutions: Canadian Junior College at College Heights, Lacombe, Alberta; Oshawa Missionary College at Oshawa, Ontario; and Saskatoon Junior College, in Saskatoon, Saskatchewan. The first two institutions were under the auspices of the Seventh Day Adventist Church, and the third was controlled by the Lutheran Church. All three were reported to be coeducational schools. Other information given was that Oshawa Missionary College had been organized as a junior college in 1916 and that Canadian Junior College had an enrolment of forty-eight college students and sixty-seven high-school students in its six-year plan of organization.

The directories of 1933 and 1934 carried the same information as had the 1932 issue, except that no mention was made of Saskatoon Junior College. In 1935, the directory reported enrolments of thirty-seven college students at Canadian Junior College and twenty-one college students at Oshawa Missionary College. No reports on junior colleges outside the United States were included in the directories published from 1936 through 1943. The directory released in 1944 mentioned only a Cuban institution.

When, in 1945, the directory again carried Canadian junior colleges, neither Canadian Junior College, Oshawa Missionary College, nor Saskatoon Junior College appeared on the list, and none of the three has been included in any of the later directories. Whatever the reason for their disappearance from the list, these institutions, for at least a few years, were identified as part of the community-college movement in Canada and may be given credit, therefore, as harbingers of a broader but later development. Moreover, such a recognition is especially justified by the fact that available reports, fragmentary though they are, on the curriculums of the

[2] "The Junior College World," *Junior College Journal*, I (June, 1931), 567.

three colleges indicate that they were indeed attempting to meet particular needs of youth and adults in the local communities.

The *Junior College Directory, 1952*, the latest published by the American Association of Junior Colleges at the time of this writing, lists six Canadian institutions. They are Alma College in St. Thomas, Ontario; Campion College and Luther College in Regina, Saskatchewan; Mount Royal College in Calgary, Alberta; Nova Scotia Agricultural College in Truro, Nova Scotia; and Prince of Wales College in Charlottetown, Prince Edward Island. Data as to their scope, organization, and origin are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1

DESCRIPTIVE DATA PERTAINING TO SIX JUNIOR COLLEGES IN CANADA*

College	Year Organized	Type	Control	Lower Grades Affiliated with College	College Grades Included
Alma	1930	Women	United Church of Canada	IX–XII	XIII
Campion	1917	Men	Catholic	IX–XII	XIII
Luther	1926	Coeducational	Lutheran	IX–XII	XIII
Mount Royal	1930	Coeducational	United Church of Canada	X–XII	XIII
Nova Scotia Agricultural	1905	Coeducational	Public	XI–XII	XIII
Prince of Wales	1933	Coeducational	Public	XI–XII	XIII–XIV

* Source: 1951–52 annual bulletins of each college and correspondence with administrative heads of each institution.

Several important facts about the Canadian junior-college movement appear in these data. One is that, although these institutions have been listed only recently in the directories of the American Association of Junior Colleges, they are reported to have been in operation as junior colleges for a relatively long time. The initial year of operation of one is reported to be 1905; one other began in 1917; and the remaining four, by 1933.

Speculatively, it may be presumed that, when steps were being taken at these institutions toward establishment of junior-college offerings, these steps were believed to be developments of interest and import only to the local area. Unaware, therefore, that the procedures under way could relate them to a more pervasive educational movement, these colleges took no action to become identified as part of the junior-college movement either in Canada or in the United States. Since this movement has become more clearly defined and has attracted widespread attention in the United States, England, and a number of other nations, it may well be that more and more institutions not yet so identified will become cognizant

that they, too, are a part of this important educational movement and so publicize themselves.

A second significant point to be observed from the material shown in Table 1 is that the junior-college movement in Canada has thus far been predominantly a development of private institutions. Four of the six currently listed in the directory are under private auspices—all of them religious denominations. It will be recalled that all three of the institutions already described in this article were also church-related schools. In the United States, too, the early emergence of junior colleges was characterized by a predominance of privately controlled schools. Only as recently as 1948 did the number of publicly controlled institutions listed in the directory exceed the number under private auspices.

RELATION TO THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Very important to note is the fact that every one of the Canadian institutions has a secondary-school program associated with it. Three of the six schools listed in Table 1 are associated with secondary schools reaching down to the ninth year of schooling. One has Grades X–XII, and two have Grades XI and XII.

Before a clear concept can be held of the necessity for junior colleges in Canada to associate with lower secondary schools, some understanding of the pattern of organization of upper secondary and higher education in the Dominion is needed. Although the lack of uniformity of grade numbering between the school systems of the several provinces is confusing, the general practice in Canada is to consider the twelfth year of schooling as the equivalent of the first year of higher education or university work. This is so even though the twelfth year is commonly given as part of the local school system program. The university maintains close and constant supervision of the offerings, subject content, and methods of instruction in the twelfth year, and a check is always made by requiring students to pass matriculation examinations at the end of the eleventh and twelfth years. Three more years of university work are offered at the university campus. When this is completed, the Bachelor's degree is granted. Thus in Canada the Bachelor's degree is earned by qualified students normally at the end of fifteen years of schooling (the usual Junior year of college in the United States), rather than at the end of sixteen years of schooling as in the United States.

Correspondence with the executive director of each of the colleges listed in Table 1 has confirmed that all but Prince of Wales College offer only the first collegiate year of schooling as labeled in the American system. The high-school and university program on Prince Edward Island is reported to be comparable to that in the United States.

When the relations between the lower levels of schooling and the uni-

versity level in Canada are understood, it becomes apparent why only one of the six junior colleges listed in Table 1 offers work beyond the thirteenth year. If the junior colleges were to offer fourteenth-year work as is done in United States institutions, they would be taking over two of the three years of work beyond the twelfth year usually considered prerequisite for the Baccalaureate degree. Whether or not this could be defended in terms of the meaning and value of the Bachelor's degree, it is highly unlikely that such a development could readily take place in most provinces of Canada, since each university is a strongly established institution.

Because the twelfth year of schooling is already strongly established as a part of existing local school programs, it is also unlikely that the junior colleges in Canada will detach the twelfth year from the local systems to become separate two-year institutions offering the twelfth and thirteenth years, comparable to institutions which have become separate two-year institutions and offer the thirteenth and fourteenth years in the United States.

From these observations it seems likely that in Canada, even more than in the United States, junior colleges are likely to develop as extensions of secondary-school programs in the local school systems. Strong potentialities exist, therefore, for fundamental planning of an integrated, well-articulated educational program through all the secondary and lower-college years. Such planning, if directed toward the accomplishment of sound educational service to both youth and adults in the community, could well result in the development of a community-college service of the highest order.

SIZE AND SCOPE OF INSTITUTIONS

The Canadian junior colleges, like most of those in the United States, are typically small institutions. In Table 2 are shown the total enrolment figures for the six colleges currently listed in the directory of junior colleges. Two of the six have fewer than 100 students enrolled; two others have fewer than 150; and only one has more than 1,000. When it is noted that the median total enrolment in the 597 junior colleges listed in the *Junior College Directory, 1952,* was computed to be 308.7 students, the figures relative to the Canadian institutions are not at all surprising.

Study of Table 2 also reveals that Canadian institutions experienced a spurt upward in enrolments after World War II, similar to that which occurred in the United States. All but Nova Scotia Agricultural College reported larger numbers of students for 1946–47 than for any of the preceding years. Except for Mount Royal, this level of enrolments continued into 1947–48, Prince of Wales College experiencing a decided increase that year over the one preceding. From that point to the last year reported, however, enrolment figures are erratic, showing Mount Royal considerably increased in size; Alma College, Nova Scotia Agricultural Col-

lege, and Prince of Wales College much smaller; and Campion and Luther relatively unchanged.

Analysis of the offerings of the six junior colleges as described in the catalogues discloses that most are striving to provide both general and vocational training for students who attend. Commercial and business curriculums were listed by four of the schools, agriculture by two, and only one institution described an array of course offerings which was clearly limited to a university-transfer program.

TABLE 2

TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS ENROLLED IN SIX JUNIOR COLLEGES IN CANADA*

College	School Year							
	1943–44	1944–45	1945–46	1946–47	1947–48	1948–49	1949–50	1950–51
Alma	.....	129†	129	300	300	164	137	137
Campion	.....	.....	10†	70	70	93	90	81
Luther	.....	80†	208	223	227	219	214	225
Mount Royal	611†	735	845	936	835	1,135	1,184	1,138
Nova Scotia Agricultural	.....	.....	213†	204	204	74	98	73
Prince of Wales	.....	122†	143	188	297	145	620	124

* Source of information is the *Junior College Directory*, 1945 through 1952. Washington: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1945–52.

† Enrolment figure at year of first report on the institution indicated.

RECENT INDICATIONS OF INTEREST

Within the past decade or so, evidences of a heightened interest in promotion of community colleges in Canada have appeared. These have been of three types: first, recommendations have been made by educational leaders in the Dominion either in writing or in speeches; second, studies have been conducted in which consideration of a junior college, or community college, in a particular locality was the primary objective; and third, other concrete measures have been taken toward, or interest has been evidenced in, establishment of the community-college or junior-college type of educational institutions in specific locations. Only brief illustrations of each of these types of evidence can be presented in this article.

Organizational recommendations.—At the conclusion of a comprehensive and exhaustive analysis of the content covered, methods used, and grade-level organization of present-day education in Canada and other countries, such as Great Britain, France, South Africa, and New Zealand, the Royal Commission on Education in Ontario in 1950 stated:

34. We therefore recommend *that the educational system be organized in three stages as follows:*

(i) *Elementary Education*, comprising nursery schools and kindergartens where established, together with a six-grade program ending at age twelve;

(ii) *Secondary Education*, comprising a four-grade program, ending at about age sixteen;

(iii) *Further Education*, comprising all post-secondary education to be offered in junior colleges and technical institutes, as well as apprenticeship training and part-time education.[3]

Later in the report, the following specific recommendations concerning the plan of organization and administration of junior colleges were made:

49. The general pattern to be followed under the reorganized system will be a 6–4–3 plan, that is, six grades of elementary education followed by four grades of secondary and by three grades of junior college. . . .

51. Accordingly we recommend (*a*) that local education authorities be required to establish and operate junior colleges, or junior-college departments in conjunction with secondary schools, providing two-year university-preparatory and vocational courses, and, where the need is demonstrated and it is physically and economically possible to do so, three-year university-preparatory courses, preferably in a junior college operated as a distinct unit, for all students resident in their areas who have qualified for entrance and desire to attend.[4]

The last quotation reminds the reader once more that in the Canadian scheme of education the eleventh and twelfth years are considered university-preparatory years. The three-year university-preparatory program which is specified refers, therefore, to the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth years of schooling. Thus, the junior-college unit intended in the recommended organization is one encompassing the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth years, these years to be organized and administered, wherever possible, as distinct and integral units.

Consideration of potential junior colleges.—In 1943, several years before the Royal Commission made its report, W. P. Percival, at the time president of the Canada and Newfoundland Education Associations, made a report which indicated his vision of the promise of junior colleges in Canada. He advocated the establishment of junior colleges as part of the public school systems and recommended flexibility of operation and organization in order that they could be made to fit best into different provincial educational plans. Recognizing the validity of the "community-college concept," he also suggested that curriculums be adapted to the needs of local communities and that they provide, in addition, a cultural setting for the locality. He pointed out the desirability of junior colleges in some 150 centers in the Dominion and felt that each institution ought to include at least three of the following departments: college-preparatory, commercial, agricultural, industrial, and home economics.[5]

More recently, Dr. J. C. Jonason, superintendent of the Clover Bar School Division in Alberta, completed

[3] *Report of the Royal Commission on Education in Ontario, 1950*, pp. 52–53. Toronto, Canada: Baptist Johnston, Printer to the King's Most Excellent Majesty, 1950.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 57.

[5] W. P. Percival, "Canada Plans for a Junior College or Advanced Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVII (November, 1943), 44–45.

a comprehensive study of the achievements of larger units of administration in the province. At the end of his report he states some new objectives for the school divisions. He recommends as a most urgent and feasible change in Alberta's educational system the establishment of regional high schools or junior college–high schools for a large portion of the students who do not plan to go on to university work. Provision of functional courses in vocational and technical training at the junior-college level is a specific part of his recommendations.[6]

Other measures.—More direct action toward establishment of a community college was taken by the school authorities in Lethbridge, Alberta, Canada. In the summer of 1951, this writer was retained to conduct a comprehensive survey considering the feasibility of establishment of a community-college program as part of the educational services of the local schools. As a result of the survey, a community-college plan for the locality was projected and described in the survey report.[7] It has been widely distributed, and community action on the recommendations proposed has been under way for some time.

A number of other localities in Canada with a real interest in community-college education have come to the attention of the writer. Through correspondence with the proper authorities in each case, some information on their community-college developments has been secured.

At Port Arthur, Ontario, Lakehead Technical Institute has been in operation since 1948. Under the auspices of the Department of Education of the Province of Ontario, it offers courses in two divisions: the technical institute and the university division. The technical institute courses are terminal and of two years' duration; whereas the university division offers only the first-year courses in six areas: arts, applied sciences, forestry, forest engineering, commerce, and household science. The courses can be completed at any university in Ontario.

Xavier Junior College in Sydney, Nova Scotia, a church-related private institution, has been in operation since September, 1951. In addition to the university-transfer courses, which are offered in affiliation with St. Francis Xavier University, Antigonish, Nova Scotia, evening courses for adults are offered in such fields as business, home economics, and child guidance.

Considerable community discussion of the feasibility of a community college has been conducted at Red Deer, Alberta. No institutional development has emerged as yet. Some programs in adult-education areas, however, have been carried on at the Red Deer schools in collaboration with the University of Alberta. These steps are

[6] J. C. Jonason, "Larger Units of Administration," *Alberta School Trustee*, XXI (November, 1951), 10–11.

[7] S. V. Martorana, *A Community College Plan for Lethbridge, Alberta*. Lethbridge, Alberta: Student Body of Lethbridge Collegiate Institute, 1951.

viewed by the administration of the school system there as preliminary to the setting-up of a community college in the locality. It is quite possible that similar stirrings of interest and activity are present in other Canadian localities without having come to the attention of students of the movement.

The final illustration of the growing interest in community colleges to be reported in this article is the Calgary branch of the University of Alberta. This school, in operation since 1945, is of special significance, for it evidences the breadth of view and leadership being exercised by the University of Alberta in community-college education in Alberta. At first, only the Faculty of Education offered courses there. In the summer of 1951 this center was expanded to include the Faculty of Arts and Sciences, thus allowing high-school students of a wide variety of interests to take one year of university work at the branch. This action, plus the hearty expression of willingness on the part of university officials to co-operate in measures taken by the local school authorities to set up a public community college in Lethbridge, indicates that the University of Alberta is adopting a forward-looking plan of encouragement of community colleges in the province. This policy was clearly demonstrated in the participation of university functionaries who met with Lethbridge school authorities and other interested persons in connection with the survey completed in 1951.

CANADA'S OPPORTUNITY

Two community-college movements are in progress on the North American continent. Though springing from similar social, economic, and educational causes and contributing to similar goals, the two are dissimilar with respect to time and stage of development. That in the United States has been under way for more than fifty years and, at least in certain states, is taking more or less definite form. That in Canada is largely yet to be formulated. Actual institutional developments have taken place in only a handful of localities. The time is opportune and the situation permissive, therefore, for basic planning by Canadian educators and lay leaders who wish to provide an enlightened and sound foundation for future provision of widespread community-college educational opportunity throughout the Dominion.

Three suggestions can be advanced for the guidance of Canadian leadership in proceeding with deliberations preliminary to formulating a general policy or plan for the community-college movement in Canada. These suggestions are (1) identify clearly the basic purposes which a well-founded community-college movement in Canada will fulfil, (2) formulate principles of procedure to be followed in implementing the establishment of community colleges consistent with the objectives and mode of operation of existing locally supported public educational systems, and (3) review and analyze the experience of community

colleges in the United States for insight into possible solutions to difficulties which may be encountered in Canada.

The history of community colleges in the United States can then be used, not necessarily as something to be copied and relocated in Canada, but rather as a long-range laboratory demonstration of the relative merit, or lack of merit, of different schemes conceived and tried out to accomplish the purposes of further education of youth and adults in local communities. Such an understanding achieved in the study and planning preliminary to action can well forestall the crippling crystallization of an educational movement ill-adapted to, if not actually deterrent of, the accomplishment of desired objectives. Once adopted in an educational system, patterns of organization and control, schemes of financial support, and types of physical facilities are exceedingly difficult to change or displace, as the history of education in the United States and elsewhere has clearly proved. The report of the Royal Commission cited earlier is good evidence that sound planning for further education in Canada is in process. The Canadian community-college movement is in a fine position to profit from the many good things defined by the American community colleges, which have pioneered the idea, without being impeded or weakened by the errors which have been made in the United States and the shortcomings which have resulted.

In 1948 the National Council of Chief State School Officers formulated a concept of community-college education which, for some states and localities in the United States, is idealistic more than realistic under present circumstances because of impeding educational developments which have already taken place. The school officers advocated a program of public education encompassing the thirteenth and fourteenth years of schooling, free and accessible to all the students to be served, comprehensive in its offerings, and closely articulated with the preceding public school programs which support it.[8] Perhaps in Canada, where many great things are in the offing, this ideal in education will also be achieved.

[8] "Education for the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Years," *School Life*, XXX (June, 1948), 13–18.

HIGH-SCHOOL ENGLISH—CAN WE JUSTIFY IT AS A COLLEGE-ADMISSION REQUIREMENT?[1]

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ACADEMIC "POTSHOTS" have sporadically been fired at institutions of higher learning which require for admission units of specified high-school subject areas, English being numbered among the most venerable of admission requirements. Leonard,[2] in 1945, pointed out that 9.4 specific entrance courses were still being required by colleges and universities but that these could not be justified by pertinent research findings. Borow,[3] of Pennsylvania State College; Milligan, Lins, and Little,[4] at the University of Wisconsin; Dixon,[5] at the University of Missouri; and Benz,[6] at the University of Arkansas—all made studies which throw doubt on the validity of existing admission practices. It is probable that studies similar to these caused Henry[7] to conclude that there seems to be virtually no evidence to support the traditional college policy of requiring for admission previous instruction in certain high-school subjects or credit for a specific number of units in these subjects.

STATISTICAL LIMITATIONS

It appears that all too frequently the status quo in admission practice is based on criteria which contain one or both of two statistical limitations. These can be termed the limitations of

[1] The opinions expressed are those of the author solely, are unofficial, and do not necessarily represent those of any branch of the United States Navy.

[2] J. Paul Leonard, "Can We Face the Evidence on College-Entrance Requirements?" *School Review*, LIII (June, 1945), 332–34.

[3] Henry Borow, "Psychometric Study of Non-intellectual Factors in College." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Pennsylvania State College, 1945.

[4] E. E. Milligan, L. Joseph Lins, and Kenneth Little, "The Success of Non-High-School Graduates in Degree Programs at the University of Wisconsin," *School and Society*, LXVII (January 10, 1948), 27–29.

[5] Paul I. Dixon, "Scholastic Achievement of Students Admitted to the University of Missouri on the Basis of Performance on Tests of General Educational Development." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Missouri, 1948.

[6] Harry E. Benz, "Students Entering College without Credit in High-School Mathematics," *School Review* (June, 1946), 334–41.

[7] E. R. Henry, "Predicting Success in College and University," *Handbook of Applied Psychology*, p. 451. Edited by D. H. Fryer and E. R. Henry. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1950.

a general average and the limitations of a single variable.

The general average.—It is evident that a general average, such as a high-school grade-point average, masks the differentiating ability of the separate elements averaged. The significance of weak or negative elements is bolstered by the strong, positive elements. The strong, positive elements, on the other hand, are emasculated to mediocrity by the weak or negative elements. This masking often results in a series of *non sequitur* generalities. For example, it can be shown that successful college students generally have received good marks in high-school English. Therefore, it is often assumed that good marks in high-school English (the more, the better, of course) must be a prerequisite to success in all college areas. The logical fallacy can be even more clearly seen by presuming that, since it can be shown that college students are, on the average, taller and heavier than their noncollege counterparts, there should be a general height and weight entrance requirement.

The single variable.—Innumerable examples of the single variable can be found in the literature, which abounds with zero-order correlation coefficients between numerous variables and college success. Unfortunately these zero-order correlation coefficients are generally so low as virtually to preclude any differential application of the variables. It is questionable whether very many persons react in direction or in degree because of a single variable. It is much safer to assume that complex human reactions are influenced by numerous associated variables which vary in magnitude and influence. For example, a student may fail in engineering but subsequently succeed in dentistry. Why? Only by the integrated use of weighted variables can so important a reaction as success or failure in a college area be determined with any acceptable degree of accuracy.

THE UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON STUDY

Purpose.—The University of Washington, like many of its sister-institutions, has admission requirements of specific numbers of units in the high-school subject areas, such as English. The administration of the University, being aware that admission requirements of specific high-school subjects have been under attack for some time, established a Bureau of Admissions Research for the purpose of analyzing the University's admission requirements. In 1949–50 the writer participated in one of the several studies conducted by this bureau. The purposes of this particular study were (1) to evaluate the general and specific admission requirements at the University, (2) to develop a method for predicting academic success in twenty-six subject areas as well as general university success, and (3) to determine the accuracy of the predictions from evaluated variables as contained in multiple-regression equations.

Procedure.—Derived beta coefficients were used as the means of evalu-

ating the variables. The variables were the specific high-school subject units required for admission, namely, (1) English, (2) mathematics, (3) foreign language, (4) social science, (5) natural science, and (6) electives, plus (7) the Q (quantitative) score and (8) the L (linguistic) score of the American Council of Education Psychological Examination, one of the entrance examinations given at the University.

Some of the general procedures in obtaining the statistical results were as follows:

1. A class of 2,243 students who entered the University as Freshmen in the fall of 1947 was selected, with the qualification that all students must be graduates of American high schools.

2. From their high-school transcripts, grade-point averages for English, mathematics, foreign language, social science, natural science, and electives were computed and recorded for each student on individual data sheets.

3. Each student's Q and L scores on the A.C.E. Psychological Examination were recorded on these data sheets.

4. From the college transcripts of the 2,243 students, the grade-point average for each student for each college subject was computed, and each average was recorded on the individual data sheets.

5. Using the data sheets as the source of information, 27 nine-variable regression equations were computed by the partial-correlation and the multiple-correlation techniques. These equations contributed 27 sets of β coefficients. The high-school grade-point averages and the Q and L scores on the Psychological Examination were the eight variables used in the partial and multiple formulas for predicting the grade-point averages in the University generally and in the twenty-six specific subject areas. The multiple correlations were corrected for chance errors. The amounts of correction were negligible.

6. As a check on the multiple correlations, predicted averages in college were then computed and correlated with the achieved college averages. (The zero-order correlation coefficients obtained were virtually identical with the corresponding multiple-correlation coefficients.)

DATA DERIVED

A considerable amount of data pertaining to the admission requirement of high-school English was derived. The University of Washington uniformly requires for admission three units of high-school English, no matter what the projected major subject. The foremost assumption underlying such a requirement must be that there is a distinct and positive relation between high-school English and the college subject area for which it is required for admission. It seems logical that this is the only really legitimate, justifiable basis for the requirement. It also seems logical that the oft-repeated justification of any specific college requirement ("We feel that every student should have 'such and such' number of high-school credits.") becomes nothing more than a tradition, superstition, cliché, or "vested interest," if it is not supported by measurable evidence.

Table 1, which indicates the value of high-school English in predicting success in specific college subjects as well as in university work as a whole, provides evidence that high-school English, as it is at present organized, is a questionable requirement for many

subject areas at the University. It is acknowledge that the β coefficients listed have small degrees of error and that the standard errors were not calculated, nor were tests of significance applied to any of the results. However, the number of cases used was large enough in most of the subjects so that the standard errors would be extremely small. It is also acknowledged that some of the β coefficients may be the result of the action of suppressor variables. Nevertheless, the results seem to justify a searching inquiry into the practice of requiring exactly three units of high-school English for virtually all college subjects.

It will be noted from a study of the table that, in twelve of the twenty-six areas, the partial correlations with high-school English grade-point averages are negative. In addition, the partial-correlation coefficients are generally very low, although positive. The highest partial correlation was .141 between high-school English and college

TABLE 1

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS* BETWEEN SUCCESS IN COLLEGE SUBJECTS AND ACHIEVEMENT IN HIGH-SCHOOL ENGLISH

College Subject with Which Correlated	Number of Cases	Zero-Order Correlation r_{i1}	Partial Correlation $r_{i1\cdot 23\cdots 8}$	Multiple Correlation $R_{i\cdot 123\cdots 8}$	b Coefficients $b_{i1\cdot 23\cdots 8}$	β Coefficients $\beta_{i1\cdot 23\cdots 8}$	Standard Error of Estimate $\sigma_{i\cdot 123\cdots 8}$
All-university average	2,243	.495	.055	.629	.073	.070	.558
Anthropology	603	.438	.057	.556	.115	.077	.764
Architecture	258	.123	−.069	.317	−.103	− 110	.624
Art	338	.200	−.004	.321	−.007	−.006	.644
Botany	198	.399	.021	.570	.038	.027	.806
Chemistry	752	.349	−.066	.577	−.130	−.091	.797
Economics and business	1,125	.403	−.0003	.555	−.001	−.001	.757
Engineering	271	.110	−.142	.495	−.240	−.204	.714
English	2,005	.487	.141	.588	.188	.192	.535
Far Eastern studies	166	.294	−.089	.554	−.164	−.134	.663
Foreign language	619	.397	.033	.488	.069	.045	.948
Forestry	80	.452	.138	.617	.196	.163	.678
Geography	650	.281	−.026	.451	−.052	−.039	.794
Geology	475	.338	−.022	.477	−.045	−.034	.806
History	583	.344	.007	.448	.012	.011	.704
Home economics	283	.346	.070	.424	.136	.110	.657
Journalism	107	.269	.050	.422	.116	.084	.790
Mathematics	848	.314	−.041	.520	−.077	−.059	.789
Music	320	.222	.017	.325	.032	.027	.721
Pharmacy	84	−.028	−.171	.408	−.271	−.238	.591
Philosophy	222	.407	.058	.576	.116	.081	.762
Physics	453	.260	−.042	.487	−.096	−.064	.910
Political science	369	.400	.024	.504	.047	.039	.720
Psychology	1,255	.356	.003	.486	.006	.004	.795
Sociology	959	.376	−.052	.566	−.125	−.088	.770
Zoölogy	469	.407	.019	.585	.040	.027	.786

* i represents, in turn, the college subject areas as shown in the left-hand column; 1 represents the grade-point average in high-school English; 2, the grade-point average in high-school mathematics; 3, the average in high-school foreign language; 4, the average in high-school social science; 5, the average in high-school natural science; 6, the average in high-school electives; 7, the Q (quantitative) score on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination; 8, the L (Linguistic) score on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination.

English. The lowest partial correlations were: with engineering, −.142; with pharmacy, −.171. The partial-correlation coefficients for the other twenty-three[8] areas ranged between the two extremes, .141 and −.171.

The zero-order correlation coefficients ranged from a high of .495 between high-school English and all-university average to −.028 between high-school English and pharmacy. Architecture and engineering had very low zero-order correlation coefficients. The large differences between the zero-order and the partial-correlation coefficients are examples of the curse of the single variable in the prediction of college success. Most of the magnitude of the zero-order coefficients seems to have been due to the commonality of the elements in English and the other high-school subjects. This seems to be the case with the all-university average.

An analysis of the β coefficients (used to evaluate high-school English as a predictive criterion for success in various college subjects) reveals that English made a relatively positive contribution to only about six college areas. In descending order of the size of the β coefficient, these were English, forestry, home economics, journalism, philosophy, and anthropology.

In approximately half of the University subject areas, high-school English was a distinctly poor predictive criterion of success. In six of the areas (sociology, chemistry, architecture, Far Eastern studies, engineering, and pharmacy), the β coefficients were negative. For engineering and for pharmacy the β coefficients were −.204 and −.238, respectively.

A FOLLOW-UP STUDY

A follow-up study by Black[9] at the University of Washington validated the findings of this study. Using the multiple-regression equations developed in the study reported here, Black calculated zero-order correlation coefficients between predicted grades and achieved grades in fourteen college areas. He used a sample of 625 students from the 1948 Freshman class. The sample was selected by using every third name on the class rolls. The correlation coefficients that he obtained corresponded almost exactly with the corresponding zero-order correlations produced in the previous study using the same procedure.

Black also determined statistically what relation, if any, existed between the number of units taken in high-school subjects and the grade-point averages in the college subjects. He determined that there is no definite relation between the number of units taken in a high-school subject area and the achievement in the college area for which it may be prescribed. It possibly could be inferred from this that quality of performance is relatively more important than the

[8] Classical language is not included in the table because there were not enough cases available to justify its inclusion.

[9] Donald B. Black, "Prediction of Academic Success in the University of Washington." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Washington, 1951.

amount of work taken in a subject area.

The data which these studies provide indicate that the validity of high-school English as a specific entrance requirement for many departments in the University of Washington must be seriously questioned. It does not seem possible to argue that high-school English is a uniformly valid requirement for all subject areas. It also seems questionable, in the face of the evidence, to argue that high-school English is valid as a general admission requirement.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

It is not assumed, without proof, that the University of Washington data on high-school English would hold true in every institution of higher learning throughout the United States. However, the findings of other pertinent research studies indicate that this would be a plausible hypothesis.

Certainly, one would not argue from the data that an engineer, for example, should not have a good command of the English language or a good grasp of the fundamentals of English composition. However, the data seem to indicate that success in high-school English in no way guarantees any degree of success in engineering courses. The same holds true for many of the other college subject areas. Certain suggestions as to cause or causes of the dubious validity of high-school English as a predictor of college success in other subject areas can, nevertheless, be made.

1. High-school English often includes literature, speech, and journalism, as well as composition. As a result, relatively poor accomplishment in English fundamentals may be screened by grades acquired in the other areas.

2. The marking of high-school English may be quite unreliable.

3. The nature and organization of many college subjects may be such that the ability to speak and write good English has little or no bearing on the achievement of the student in these courses.

4. The content and teaching of high-school English may contribute little or nothing to the type of literacy which is conducive to success in many college subjects as now constituted and taught.

RECRUITING TEACHERS FOR TOMORROW'S SCHOOLS

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IF THE TEACHERS of tomorrow's schools are to be of the high quality needed to secure the proper education of our young people for living effectively and happily in a democratic society, there will need to be a satisfying profession in which to work, a selective recruitment program, and a sound teacher-education program. If democracy is to maintain a position of leadership and survive the attack of other life-philosophies, tomorrow's schools must be taught by men and women who are intelligent, mentally and physically healthy, and well prepared for their jobs. These teachers must have a sincere liking for, and a good understanding of, young people. They must recognize that teacher education is never completed but is a continuing process, and they must be imbued with the ideal of becoming better teachers with each unit of experience. The shortage of teachers, most acute at the elementary-school level, and the need for more men and women in military service present difficult obstacles in the way of achieving these goals.

REASONS FOR SHORTAGE OF TEACHERS

Never in the history of education in the United States has the teaching profession attracted such widespread public interest as prevails at the present time. Parents, children, teachers, men and women in all occupations and professions, and taxpayers in general know of the acute shortage of certified teachers for the schools. The public has been made aware of the fact that more teachers have been leaving the profession than are being replaced by well-educated new recruits.

Many reasons have been advanced for the exodus from the teaching profession. Chief among them has been the low salary paid to teachers. However, poor living conditions, insecurity of tenure, little opportunity for promotion, inadequate retirement provisions, and restrictions placed upon the social lives of teachers have each played a part.

Action has already been taken to eliminate, or at least reduce the magnitude of, some of these undesirable characteristics of teaching as a lifework. Much still needs to be done, however, before our schools can be adequately supplied with the quality of teachers which America needs in her schools and which our children have the right to expect. Let us briefly examine some of the steps which must be taken before we can have a satisfac-

tory supply of teachers of the kind that we want in our schools. Teaching as a lifework must first be made more attractive to young men and young women of high intelligence, good mental and physical health, and sound moral character.

RAISING TEACHERS' SALARIES

In recent years most suggestions for a solution of this problem have centered in, or have been based directly upon, the standard of teachers' salaries. It has been contended that, if teachers' salaries were raised to a point where they would compare favorably with incomes from other lines of endeavor, a sufficient number of young men and women of high quality would be attracted to teaching as a vocation.

Salaries have been raised, though not enough to make the level of teachers' salaries compare favorably with earnings in many occupations with less stringent requirements of personality and preparation. It is yet too early to tell whether higher salaries will be successful in attracting a sufficient number of desirable young people into the teaching profession. Past experience in other occupations and a knowledge of human nature lead one to believe that, if salaries are raised to a high enough level, there will be a grand rush toward the teaching field.

There are two real dangers inherent in this method of recruiting teachers. High salaries would undoubtedly attract undesirable candidates as well as young people of sound character, healthy physique, high intelligence, and a sincere liking for children. An equal, if not greater, danger is that we may become satisfied with quantity at the expense of quality.

SELECTIVE RECRUITMENT

Instead of accepting any person who says he wants to qualify for a teacher's certificate, there should be a selective recruitment program that would encourage desirable candidates and would redirect those who do not show promise of becoming good teachers into occupations for which they are better fitted. This recruitment should begin in the elementary school and continue through college years. The redirection phase should continue within the profession and should lead out of the teaching field those who prove incapable of becoming successful teachers.

ENCOURAGING ATTITUDE OF PRESENT TEACHERS

The success of any teacher-recruitment program depends largely on the teachers already in the profession. The suggestion is heard, much too infrequently and too faintly, that more young people would be recruited for teaching if the teachers now in the profession would approach the problem from a different point of view. Instead of broadcasting to all who will listen the unattractive features of teaching, in an apparent attempt to make the listeners feel sorry for the teacher, each teacher should take the position that teaching is an attractive

profession and one requiring both talent and skill and that, if an individual is good enough, he may be permitted to enter this rewarding profession. It would be an interesting experiment to see this suggestion given a fair trial.

There are undesirable features in every profession, and teaching has its share of them. But if we are really serious about wanting to recruit not only a larger number but a better quality of young people, we must quit stressing the undesirable features and emphasize the values and the rewards in teaching.

There are young people who, because of obvious lack of ability or personality, should be directed into some other line of work. However, far too many teachers in both high school and college advise all students to stay away from teaching. A young lady who was doing her student teaching stopped in my office recently and asked whether all teachers disliked their jobs. She was doing student teaching at a time which made it convenient for her to have her luncheon in the school cafeteria. All the teachers at the luncheon table asked her each day when she came in whether she still thought she would like to be a teacher. In all the time she had been doing student teaching, only one teacher had encouraged her to continue her preparation for teaching. This young student was seriously considering giving up her plans to teach and seeking some other type of employment. Such an attitude on the part of those already in the profession will not encourage desirable candidates to choose teaching as a vocation.

If the many teachers who are thoroughly interested in, and challenged by, their work are careful to speak positively instead of negatively about teaching as a life-profession, fewer promising candidates will be directed away from the teaching field. During the preschool period through perhaps Grade V or VI, children are definitely attracted to the profession, and there is ample evidence of their admiration and respect for both teachers and teaching. They play school, quote their teachers incessantly, and repeatedly affirm their intention of becoming teachers. From about Grade VI on, children seem rapidly to lose this interest. Part of our recruitment loss is due to the attitude of the teachers with whom these children come in contact at junior and senior high school level.

Teachers who sincerely believe in teaching as an honorable and desirable occupation must work individually and in organized groups to sell their profession to young people who show promise of becoming good teachers. The seed of interest may be sown at the elementary-school level. The importance of arousing an interest at an early age is shown by a recent survey of five thousand high-school students conducted by the Indiana University School of Education. Only 2 per cent of these students said that they had definitely decided to become teachers, and 4 per cent reported that they probably would prepare for teaching.

About 20 per cent of those who had decided to teach had made their decision before entering Grade VII, and 44 per cent did so during Grades VII through X.[1]

High-school teachers should be on the lookout for boys and girls who seem to possess the qualities essential in a good teacher and should strongly encourage these young people to consider teaching for their lifework. The same may be said of college teachers when they are advising students. We cannot compete with other professions for the interest of desirable young people unless we set up a positive recruiting program throughout the entire field.

SOUND TEACHER-EDUCATION PROGRAMS AND TEACHER RETENTION

The desire of a large number of fine young people to teach will not, in itself, provide good teachers for tomorrow's schools. There must be sound teacher-education programs in the institutions in which future teachers are enrolled. Also there must be a greater retention of teachers within the profession. Space does not permit a detailed discussion of these two significant phases of the teacher problem.

The schools must be kept open. However, we should exercise care in the selection of new recruits to the profession, and we should raise the level of our provisions for pre-service and in-service teacher education. We should guard against becoming so concerned about the great need for numbers that we lower our sights and mistake quantity for quality. Once the profession is supplied with high-quality teachers who are enthusiastic about their profession, we shall not need to worry about a shortage of good teachers; the enthusiasm of these teachers will attract like personalities to prepare for teaching.

There are many excellent teachers in our schools, for whom we are very thankful. Unfortunately there are also teachers who do not qualify, in preparation, ability, or personality, as teachers. Our continuing task should be to build up the personnel of the teaching profession to the point where teaching will rank among the most important professions, in practice as well as in theory, and each can say proudly, "I am a teacher."

[1] "Students Reject Teaching as a Career," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXI (March, 1953), 407.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON GUIDANCE

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THE following references have been selected from the literature which appeared in the last half of 1952 and the first half of 1953. Researches and statements of opinion continue to reflect the feeling that the welfare of our society demands the highly discriminative use of our human resources.

Included in this issue as an additional aid for educational workers is a list of pertinent films supplied by Kenneth D. Norberg.

DISTRIBUTION[1]

591. ANDERSON, RUTH E. "An Annotated Bibliography of School and College Information," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (October, 1952), 170–208.

Lists 175 items selected from the pertinent literature which has appeared since the fall of 1948. Includes a wide range of indexes and guides to varied types of institutions for postsecondary education.

592. BERDIE, RALPH F. "Why Don't They Go to College?" *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXI (March, 1953), 352–56.

A questionnaire study which revealed to a certain extent the importance of noneconomic factors, especially the cultural level of the home, in determining which high-school graduates go to college.

593. BILOVSKY, DAVID; MCMASTERS, WILLIAM; SHORR, JOSEPH E.; and SINGER, STANLEY L. "Individual and Group Counseling," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXI (March, 1953), 363–65.

Reports a controlled experiment to compare group and individual vocational counseling of high-school Seniors. In terms of the realism of vocational objectives, as rated by a jury, there were no significant statistical differences between the group-counseled and the individually counseled students.

594. BINGHAM, WALTER V. "Expectancies," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Spring, 1953), 47–53.

Points out, with illustrations, the advantages of expressing prediction in expectancy tables, from which a counselor may tell an individual his chances of attaining such-and-such a degree of success.

595. BRAYFIELD, ARTHUR H. "Clerical Interest and Clerical Aptitude," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXI (February, 1953), 304–6.

Research into the relationship between clerical aptitude and clerical interest led

[1] See also Item 274 (Mullen) in the list of selected references appearing in the April, 1953, issue of the *Elementary School Journal* and Item 550 (Frederiksen and Schrader) in the list appearing in the May, 1953, issue of the *School Review*.

the author to conclude that "measures of vocational interest do not furnish a substantial basis for inferences about the presence or absence of special aptitudes. Nor can special aptitude measures be used to replace interest tests."

596. BROWN, KENNETH E., and JOHNSON, PHILIP G. *Education for the Talented in Mathematics and Science.* A Report of a Joint Conference of the Cooperative Committee on the Teaching of Science and Mathematics of the American Association for the Advancement of Science and the United States Office of Education. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education Bulletin 1952, No. 15. Pp. vi+34.

Current shortages of scientists and engineers demand that every effort be made to identify high-school pupils of high potentialities for the advanced study of mathematics and science and to stimulate them to study in these fields.

597. EMERY, DONALD. "Surveying Job Intentions," *Clearing House,* XXVII (November, 1952), 144–45.

Reports an annual survey of the job intentions of Senior high-school pupils. The distribution of choices is compared with the United States Census distribution of workers.

598. HARRIGER, GUY N. "College Entrance Requirements Need Not Be a Problem," *Educational Leadership,* X (May, 1953), 481–85.

By making Grade IX a "critical season" for the study and counsel of each pupil, mass preparation for mythical, generalized "college-entrance requirements" is avoided.

599. HOLLINSHEAD, BYRON S. *Who Should Go to College.* New York: Published for the Commission on Financing Higher Education by Columbia University Press, 1952. Pp. xviii+190.

In illuminating the problem of maximum development and employment of our human resources, this study estimates per cents of our youth who are able to profit by college education, reports per cents who do and do not go to college, and evaluates various suggestions for obtaining the college enrolment of all who have college ability. A valuable chapter is contributed by Robert J. Havighurst and Robert R. Rodgers on the special problem of motivation to attend post-high-school educational institutions.

600. HUGHELL, WILMA, and LANCE, GERALD G. "Student-Parent-Counselor Conferences," *Personnel and Guidance Journal,* XXXI (May, 1953), 509–12.

An example of good practice in analysis and counseling of ninth-graders for vocational and educational choices.

601. *Job Guide for Young Workers* (1953 edition). Washington: Bureau of Employment Security, United States Department of Labor, April, 1953. Pp. 32.

A bulletin giving fundamental information in tabular form about a number of occupations which may be entered upon by beginning workers.

602. JOHNSON, A. PEMBERTON. "Counseling Engineering Freshmen," *Educational and Psychological Measurement,* XIII (Spring, 1953), 133–44.

A description of the program at Purdue University. Presents data on the validation of items on the counseling record.

603. MAHONEY, HAROLD J. *Occupational Information for Counselors: The Essential Content for Training Courses.* Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1952. Pp. viii+70.

Reports a research study in which 333 distinctive items of occupational information were rated by a jury of experts on their essentiality for counselors. The 203 items chosen by from 66.6 to 100.0 per cent of the jury are listed in the report.

604. PATTERSON, RUSSELL L., and FOTIU, P. G. "The Effectiveness of Guidance Center Counseling," *Journal of Educational Research,* XLVI (January, 1953), 359–63.

Data from a veterans' center show that those veterans who followed the advice given were generally more successful than those who did not.

605. "Services to Youth Entering the Labor Market," *Employment Security Review*, XX (April, 1953), 3–32.

An entire number of this organ of the United States Employment Service is devoted to exposition of the co-operative working relationships between public employment services and public and private secondary schools.

606. SMALL, LEONARD. *Personality Determinants of Vocational Choice.* Psychological Monographs: General and Applied, Vol. LXVII, No. 351. Washington: American Psychological Association, 1953. Pp. 22.

A controlled study, comparing the vocational choices of "a definitely maladjusted group" of boys with "a better-adjusted group." Sheds much light on fantasy, reality, and other mechanisms in vocational choice.

607. STORRS, SIBYLL V. "Evaluative Data on the G.A.T.B.," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXI (November, 1952), 87–90.

Presents correlations of the General Aptitude Test Battery as a whole and in its separate components with Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale.

608. SUPER, DONALD E. "A Theory of Vocational Development," *American Psychologist*, VIII (May, 1953), 185–90.

Reviews the theory advanced by Eli Ginzberg and his collaborators (*Occupational Choice*, Columbia University Press, 1951); points out its limitations; and advances his own theory, drawn from numerous researches and expositions of theory, in a series of ten propositions.

609. "Symposium on College Admission Requirements," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVIII (January, 1953), 6–47.

Ten authorities discuss college-admission requirements from varied viewpoints. Of special significance are the articles on "Secondary School–College Relations in Michigan" by Clyde Vroman; "Admissions Criteria: A Review of the Literature" by Joseph P. Cosand; and "In Defense of a Subject Pattern" by H. A. Spindt.

610. TRYTTEN, M. H. *Student Deferment in Selective Service: A Vital Factor in National Security.* Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1952. Pp. viii+140.

The problems of most effective utilization of manpower in the present period of national peril are discussed from many angles and in the light of major facts concerning our human resources.

611. ZAPOLEON, MARGUERITE W. "Expanding Occupational Opportunities for Women," *Monthly Labor Review*, LXXVI (April, 1953), 381–83.

Brings out numerous striking changes that have occurred since 1940.

ADJUSTMENT[2]

612. "The Dean of Girls in High School," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, XVI (October, 1952), 3–38.

A series of articles which illuminate the various functions of the dean of girls in high school.

613. GLUECK, SHELDON. "The Home, the School, and Delinquency," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXIII (Winter, 1953), 17–32.

While this article presents important relations established in the author's intensive research, its delineation of many problems in research technique is perhaps a more noteworthy contribution.

[2] See also Items 284 (Griffiths), 290 (*The Child*), and 291 (Cohen) in the list of selected references appearing in the April, 1953, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*, and Item 545 (Hertzman) in the list appearing in the May, 1953, issue of the *School Review*.

614. GORLOW, LEON; HOCH, ERASMUS L.; and TELSCHOW, EARL F. *The Nature of Nondirective Group Psychotherapy*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. Pp. xiv+144.

Reports the results of three dissertations that employed the same body of data.

615. HUMPHREVILLE, FRANCES T. "Learning about Pupils through Their Written Comments on Selected Stories," *School Review*, LX (December, 1952), 541–44.

An English teacher illustrates a method in English composition by which pupils reveal their problems.

616. MCGHEE, FLORENCE. *Please Excuse Johnny*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1952. Pp. 242.

A supervisor of child welfare and attendance reports, in a series of narratives, her experiences with pupils and their home lives. A wide range of problems are most graphically presented.

617. MALM, MARGUERITE, and JAMISON, OLIS G. *Adolescence*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. viii+512.

Giving special emphasis to the several aspects of adjustment characteristic of adolescence, this book represents a careful sifting and an interesting presentation of the extensive literature in the field.

618. MORGAN, HENRY H. "A Psychometric Comparison of Achieving and Nonachieving College Students of High Ability," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, XVI (August, 1952), 292–98.

Using well-known inventories of interests, adjustment, and motivation, the writer found such nonintellectual or personality variables as the following to be related to the academic achievement of his subjects: maturity and seriousness of interests; awareness of, and concern for, other persons; a sense of responsibility; motivation.

619. SERENE, MICHAEL F. "An Experiment in Motivational Counseling," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXI (February, 1953), 319–24.

Counseling the underachievers of Grade XI resulted in raising the correlation between ability and achievement in the class as a whole from .566 to .760.

620. SINICK, DANIEL. "Anxiety in the Testing Situation," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXI (March, 1953), 384–87.

A helpful analysis of the causes of anxiety in the testing situation, followed by a number of practical suggestions for inducing calmness and control.

621. SLAVSON, S. R. *Child Psychotherapy*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1952. Pp. xiv+332.

A treatment organized sequentially around child development (normal needs), pathogenesis, and psychotherapy. From the author's extended experience in a child-guidance clinic, case studies are cited to illustrate principles.

622. TABA, HILDA; BRADY, ELIZABETH HALL; ROBINSON, JOHN T.; and VICKERY, WILLIAM E. *Diagnosing Human Relations Needs*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1951. Pp. xii+156.

Describes in successive chapters the use of diaries by pupils, parent interviews, schedules of participation in school life, sociometric procedures, open questions, and teacher logs of class procedures as means of gaining understanding of pupils and their needs. With each technique, the authors offer practical suggestions on use and organization and interpretation of results.

623. THOMPSON, R. E. "A Validation of the Glueck Social Prediction Scale for Proneness to Delinquency," *Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science*, XLIII (November–December, 1952), 451–70.

Reports a study showing that the Glueck Social Prediction Scale identified accurately "91 per cent of the boys who in the years that followed proved definitely to be either nondelinquents or delinquents."

624. WATTENBERG, WILLIAM W. "Problems of the 'Little Mother,'" *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXI (May, 1953), 513–15.

Effectively points to the problems of maladjustment in boys which arise in broken homes managed by sisters.

625. *What's Happening to Delinquent Children in YOUR Town?* Prepared by the Special Juvenile Delinquency Project for the Children's Bureau, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1953. Pp. vi+26.

An extended list of questions about practices in the prevention and treatment of delinquency which may serve as a check list for the study of any community in regard to this problem.

DISTRIBUTION AND ADJUSTMENT[3]

626. BUCKLEN, HARRY E. "A Teacher Looks at Our Social Class Structure," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXIX (January, 1953), 14–26.

Useful for its definition of important forces which counselors must understand in performing their functions.

627. BUROS, OSCAR (editor). *The Fourth Mental Measurements Yearbook*. Highland Park, New Jersey: Gryphon Press, 1953. Pp. xxiv+1164.

A comprehensive review of the literature in measurements from 1948–51, inclusive, is presented in two sections: "Tests and Reviews" and "Books and Reviews." The candid reviews of all types of educational and psychological tests constitute a valuable aid to the counselor or other educational worker in selecting tests and interpreting results from them.

628. COGAN, MORRIS L. "Toward a Definition of Profession," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXIII (Winter, 1953), 33–50.

Reports a scholarly study bearing on numerous considerations which are of importance in the work of vocational advisement. Includes a bibliography of fifty-one items.

629. CUMMINS, L. ROSS, and SCOTT, C. WINFIELD. "Philosophical Bases of Community Guidance Services," *School Review*, LX (September, 1952), 343–51.

Presents a review of the literature on community guidance services appearing in 1940–51 and lists important problems concerning functions and operations. Supplies a bibliography of thirty-nine items.

630. DIMICHAEL, SALVATORE G. "Vocational Rehabilitation for the Mentally Retarded," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXI (April, 1953), 428–32.

An overview of problems, program, and progress, with special reference to the work of the Federal Office of Vocational Rehabilitation.

631. *Education*, LXXIII (March, 1953) 403–56.

An entire number devoted to the theme of guidance toward occupations in science. Contributions from fifteen authors.

632. *Education*, LXXIII (April, 1953), 459–516.

This issue is a "Guidance Number" made up of varied contributions from fourteen authors.

633. "Educational and Psychological Testing," *Review of Educational Research*, XXIII (February, 1953), 1–110.

A review of the literature appearing in the preceding three-year period, organized in several chapters about the "Development and Applications of Test of General Mental Ability," "Special Aptitude," "Nonprojective Tests of Personality and Interest," "Projective Tests of Personality," "Tests of Educational Achievement in Schools and Colleges," and "Tests of Educational Achievement outside the Schools."

634. GOODRICH, THOMAS A. "Gains in Self-understanding through Pre-college

[3] See also Item 506 (Ferdian) in the list of selected references appearing in the April, 1953, issue of the *School Review*.

Clinics," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXI (April, 1953), 433–38.

Cites the experience of Michigan State College in conducting three-day counseling clinics for entering Freshmen during the summer preceding entrance. Submits some objective evidence of the value of such practice.

635. "Guidance in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVII (March, 1953), 5–172.

An entire number composed of more than twenty articles on different phases of guidance.

636. HARCAR, GEORGE A., and LEONARD, REGIS J. "Minimum Guidance Testing Programs for Catholic Secondary Schools," *Catholic Educational Review*, L (June, 1952), 394–402.

Lists tests for budgets of various sizes.

637. HARTLEY, DAVID, and HEDLUND, PAUL A. *Reactions of High School Seniors to Their Guidance Programs: A Method of Evaluating a Guidance Program.* University of the State of New York Bulletin, No. 1411. Albany, New York: University of the State of New York Press, 1952. Pp. 86.

The Seniors of thirty-five selected high schools of New York State were canvassed by questionnaire to ascertain the extent to which they had felt a need for guidance in four broad areas and the extent to which guidance service had met those needs.

638. JOHNSON, B. LAMAR. "The Advising, Guidance, and Counseling of Junior College Students," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVII (February, 1953), 19–36.

Purposes, varied organizations, and major features of counseling programs are described, with many illustrations from California junior colleges.

639. *Junior College Journal*, XXIII (January, 1953), 245–79.

Presents a series of articles treating of various aspects of guidance at the junior-college level and affording a number of examples of good practice.

640. KINKER, H. ROBERT, and FOX, WILLIAM H. *A Study of High School Guidance Services in a Six-State Area.* Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXVIII, No. 6. Bloomington, Indiana: Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University, 1953. Pp. xii+108.

A questionnaire survey of the status of guidance in high schools of the Middle West.

641. KNAPP, ROBERT H. *Practical Guidance Methods.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. xii+320.

A general textbook, touching upon the guidance function at all educational levels. The concept of guidance is somewhat broader and more inclusive than that which is the usual criterion for selection of these selected references.

642. LINDGREN, HENRY CLAY. *Psychology of Personal and Social Adjustment.* New York: American Book Co., 1953. Pp. x+482.

A college textbook illuminating a wide range of human problems and relations, and characterized by judicious employment of the scholarly literature in each area. Excellent chapter-end bibliographies.

643. NORTHRUP, GRANT J. "The Duties and Responsibilities of Shared Counselors," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVI (December, 1952), 295–303.

A report of research which calls attention to the practice of having one counselor shared by two or more schools.

644. SHOSTROM, EVERETT L., and BRAMMER, LAWRENCE M. *The Dynamics of the Counseling Process.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xvi+214.

While this book was developed primarily in a college setting, the points of view ex-

pressed can be applied at other educational levels. A concept of "Self-adjustive Counseling" is set forth in early pages of the book, and successive chapters develop the idea under such headings as "Establishing Readiness for Counseling," "The Initial Interview," "The Exploratory Phase," "The Synthesis Interviews."

645. "Symposium: Counseling the Mentally Retarded and Their Parents," *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, IX (April, 1953), 99–124.

Five papers treating the general problems of counseling this special group.

646. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "Essentials of Guidance Services in Elementary Schools," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (December, 1952), 207–10.

An article of opinion, describing guidance services or features that should be established in the elementary school.

647. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E.; JACOBS, ROBERT; SELOVER, MARGARET; and TOWNSEND, AGATHA, with the advice and cooperation of the Public Schools Advisory Committee of the Educational Records Bureau. *Introduction to Testing and the Use of Test Results in Public Schools*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1953. Pp. x+114.

General principles governing the planning of a testing program, selection of tests, administration of tests, analysis and interpretation of test results, recording of scores, and employment of test results in counseling.

648. *Vocational Guidance Quarterly*, Volume I, No. 1 (Autumn, 1952).

Concurrent with the organization of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, *Occupations* was renamed the *Personnel and Guidance Journal* and was broadened in its scope to become the official organ of the new association. As a constituent element of the new association, in the autumn of 1952 the National Vocational Guidance Association launched the *Vocational Guidance Quarterly*. Its aim is to complement, rather than to compete with, the *Personnel and Guidance Journal* by publishing short articles exclusively related to vocational guidance and adjustment.

649. WARNER, W. LLOYD. *American Life—Dream and Reality*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. xvi+268.

A work of interpretation of American society well calculated to give the counselor fundamental orientation in the social scene in which he seeks to carry out his functions.

650. WATERS, E. W. "Problems of Rural Negro High School Seniors on the Eastern Shore of Maryland: A Consideration for Guidance," *Journal of Negro Education*, XXII (Spring, 1953), 115–25.

Principal instrument of this survey to determine problems of rural Negro high-school Seniors was R. E. Bender's Problem Check List Form for Rural Youth.

651. WESMAN, ALEXANDER G. "The Differential Aptitude Tests," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXI (December, 1952), 167–70.

Reports what has been learned about the value of this battery in five years of experience.

652. WILLIAMS, NANCY. "A Study of the Validity of the Verbal Reasoning Subtest and the Abstract Reasoning Subtest of the Differential Aptitude Tests," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XII (Spring, 1952), 129–31.

Correlations with general intelligence were of sufficient magnitude to suggest that the use of this battery could render unnecessary the administration of general intelligence tests at the secondary-school level.

653. WOOLF, MAURICE D., and WOOLF, JEANNE A. *The Student Personnel Program: Its Development and Integration in the High School and College*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. x+416.

Includes guidance activity as one of several prominent elements of the student personnel program. Treatments of individual features are followed and concluded by a chapter on administration and organization of the total program.

FILMS

The following list of selected instructional motion pictures is restricted to recent 16mm films not previously listed in this journal. All listings are sound films unless otherwise indicated.

654. *College: Your Challenge.* 10 minutes, black and white. Chicago: Coronet Films, 1953.

A presentation of the benefits of college education addressed to students at the high-school level.

655. *Insuring Our Investment in Youth.* 15 minutes, black and white. Des Moines, Iowa: Carl F. Mahnke Productions, 1952.

A public relations film which demonstrates the need for guidance services in the schools and shows how counseling and occupational study may help to improve the efficient use of educational and industrial resources.

656. *Responsibility.* 12 minutes, black and white. New York: Young America Films, Inc., 1952.

One of a film series entitled "Discussion Problems in Group Living," this film tells the story of a high-school boy's efforts to meet his responsibilities. Uses an "open end" device to encourage audience discussion of the problems that are raised.

657. *Working Together for Tomorrow's Jobs.* 11 minutes, color. New York: National Urban League, 1952.

Dealing with the "Career Conference" activities of the National Urban League, this film shows how certain phases of career-planning can be organized through the cooperative efforts of educational and industrial agencies.

MCGRAW-HILL BOOK CO., INC., NEW YORK[4]

658. *Age of Turmoil.* 19 minutes, black and white. 1953.

Signs of "turmoil," such as opposition to parental authority, giggling, arguing, daydreaming, and vacillation, are exhibited by six adolescents, whose parents respond with varying degrees of understanding.

659. *Meaning of Adolescence.* 14 minutes, black and white. 1953.

Deals with the developmental requirements of adolescents in the urban American culture. Explains the "excessive" behavior of this age group and suggests methods by which adults can help boys and girls make successful adjustments during this difficult period.

660. *Meeting the Needs of Adolescents.* 16 minutes, black and white. 1953.

Shows what understanding parents can do to meet the physical, mental, spiritual, and social needs of their adolescent children. Illustrates the problem by showing a specific family including a seventeen-year-old girl and a fourteen-year-old boy.

[4] The McGraw-Hill films reviewed in this issue are part of a series of five films on "Adolescent Development." The other two titles, *Physical Aspects of Puberty* and *Social-Sex Attitudes in Adolescence*, were not available for preview at the time this listing was prepared.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

E. L. THORNDIKE and CLARENCE L. BARNHART, *Thorndike-Barnhart High School Dictionary*. Chicago 11: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1952. Pp. xxiv+1096. $4.00.

Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language: College Edition. Compiled by JOSEPH H. FRIEND, DAVID B. GURALNIK, and OTHERS. Cleveland 2: World Publishing Co., 1953. Pp. xxxvi+1724. $5.00.

The first of the dictionaries here considered is one of a series of three designed for the use of students in elementary school and in high school. They all appeared in 1952, the *Beginning Dictionary* (Grades IV–V) being adapted for nine-year-olds and containing dictionary lessons for the beginner, and the *Junior Dictionary* (Grades V–VIII) continuing the idea of giving young students some idea of what dictionaries are for and how they are to be used.

The book here under review is the high-school dictionary of the series, designed particularly for Grades IX–XII. The appearance of the printed page has been given close attention, as is usual in this series, not only by suitable typographical devices, but also by the inclusion of illustrations, 2,000 of them, well designed to serve the purpose of illuminating the definitions. Pronunciations are given in an extremely simple and satisfactory phonetic system. Words such as *abalone, adobe, appendicitis* have their American origin indicated.

Scrupulous care has been taken to keep the definitions and etymologies simple and well within the range of the high-school student's comprehension. One of the most helpful features of the work is the generous inclusion of "usage notes," garnished off in a great many instances with illustrative sentences well written to cover the points involved.

The book claims 75,000 entries, 100,000 meanings, and 25,000 sentences and phrases given to clarify meaning. It is an attractive volume, in the production of which people in academic work all over the country have had a share.

The second work to be noticed here is a dictionary of a more comprehensive scope than that just mentioned. It is the "College Edition" of a dictionary having the same title that appeared in 1951 in the "Encyclopedic Edition" in two volumes. Judging from a physical comparison of the earlier two-volume work and the one now being considered, the type for the larger work of 1951 was held and reworked for the smaller dictionary, such entries as could best be spared from the first edition being slipped out to make room for new terms included in the "College Edition." The result is a desk-size dictionary, the majority of whose entries are identical with those appearing in the larger two-volume work.

This utilization by the publishers of a previous type-setting and proofreading has enabled them to present a book of remarkable size at a modest price. The work claims to have 142,000 entries, a larger number than is found in any competing dictionary. For a long time now the race has been on among dictionary publishers to see who could round up the most entries, and a zeal, which I feel is not of knowledge, has been manifested in that direction.

What the end of such striving for ever increasing the number of entries is going to be,

I do not know. The present limit can hardly be exceeded without cutting the definitions and etymologies further than is now being done. And they are now about as short and bare as they can well be. The logical outcome of this race for superiority in number of entries will be to take us back to the original practice of having such entries as: *Magistrate*, governor; *Magnificence*, sumptuousness; *Maladie*, disease.

By using such treatment as this, and by resorting to that size of type known as "brilliant," perhaps half a million entries could be run up. But of course the cause of good dictionary-making would not be advanced thereby.

Not that the publishers of the present dictionary are subject to criticism for the unwholesome looks of their page. The appearance of the page is good. The etymologies and the definitions are certainly as ample as are usually found in works of this kind. The pronunciations are well indicated by means of a key containing forty-six symbols for the main body of the language, and eight additional ones for setting forth foreign sounds that have to be dealt with on occasion. The whole treatment of pronunciation, both in the body of the dictionary and in the forematter, is liberal and enlightened. The essay on "The English Language" by Harold Whitehall is exceptionally well done, as everybody acquainted with Mr. Whitehall would expect it to be.

As I have suggested, there are many entries in the book that I could have spared gladly in return for a more ample treatment of some of the definitions and etymologies. I could dispense with such terms as *baccivorous, Balmung, bdellium, beccafico, begohm, bez antler, bolide, botryoid, falciform, faradic, ytterbia, zoisite, zoosporangium, zygapophysis*. But, for all I know, a dictionary publisher might run financial risks by omitting them, and a great hue and cry might be raised if such words as these were left out of all but the unabridged or specialized dictionaries. However, the definitions of many of these expressions can hardly be made comprehensible to any but the special student, and he of course does not need them.

This dictionary, however, is to be commended for including more modern terms than are usually found in such a work. It has such terms as *cybernetics, wetback, napalm, flying saucer, simulcast*, and many more. More work needs to be done in this direction. Such terms as *dean's list, Bankers' Mile, downy woodpecker, therapist, bathing beauty, sweater girl, BB gun, beanshooter*, and many more might well be given place in a dictionary with such a title as this one has.

The "Webster" in the title of course refers to Noah Webster, a name that inevitably slants the minds of most people in the direction of G. & C. Merriam Webster dictionaries. One wonders whether the publishers were not aware of the danger that the word "Webster" in the title might mislead some persons who would not be well enough informed to distinguish between dictionaries thus named. In the Foreword, signed by "The Editors," the justification given for the title is that the dictionary "is based especially on the broad foundations laid down for American dictionaries by Noah Webster" (p. vii). Editor Whitehall, in the essay already mentioned, however, says: "The first American lexicographer to hit upon the particular pattern that distinguishes the American dictionary was Webster's lifelong rival, Joseph E. Worcester" (p. xxxiii).

The fact that the publishers brought out the book under a title which might be misleading does not detract from its usefulness. The dictionary itself is a good piece of work, and its editors are to be congratulated.

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CHARLES CARPENTER FRIES, *The Structure of English*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1952. Pp. 304.

The Structure of English attempts to apply more fully than they have previously been

applied in school grammars some of the principles underlying the modern scientific study of language. It also presents an entirely new method of describing the English sentence.

The eighteenth-century doctrine that English can be described in the terminology of Latin grammar has been challenged frequently during the last half-century. Based upon such studies as those of Sterling A. Leonard, this challenge of the grammar of "usage" demonstrated that knowledge of rules or of purists' dicta often did not represent the actual practice of "standard" English and, indeed, very often prescribed forms having little currency outside the classroom. This challenge was based also on historical evidence (for example, Leonard's *The Doctrine of Correctness in English Usage*,[1]) that many of the rules themselves were unsound linguistically. And yet, as Fries writes:

> Very few of those concerned with the practical teaching of English or other languages even know that anyone has ever insisted that the materials and procedures of 'formal grammar' are basically false [p. 277].

The difference between the older traditional procedure of grammatical analysis and the approach used here lies in the fact that the conventional method begins with the total meanings and uses the meanings as the basis for an analysis that ascribes technical names to portions of total meanings already known, whereas Fries's method starts from the description of the formal devices that are present and the patterns that make them significant and arrives at the structural meanings as a result of the analysis.

To indicate the four functioning units or parts of speech, Fries uses the notation "Class 1," "Class 2," "Class 3," and "Class 4." The reader familiar with the conventional grammar will probably attempt to equate the class numbers with the usual names, "nouns," "verbs," "adjectives," and "adverbs." However, in the four large classes, the lexical meaning (the meaning of words) is rather clearly separable from the structural meaning, or the arrangement in which these words appear.

The words not included in the four classes are considered "function words" (for example, *the, may, not, very, and, at, to, there, when, after, well, yes, listen, please, let us*). It is usually difficult, if not impossible, to indicate a lexical meaning apart from the structural meaning which these units signal, and all the function words must be learned and reacted to as words. For example, in the word group "the ship sails today," *the* is a "signal to structural meaning" and determines the part of speech of *sails*.

The history of the English language shows that, as the inflected forms of English became scantier, and as the syntactical relations were less and less adequately expressed by the forms of the words themselves, position in the sentence gradually took over functions originally foreign to it. Hence, word order became the most fundamental and most powerful of all relating methods. Meanings really came to depend upon an intricate system of formal features apart from the words as vocabulary units. This concept of word order is basic to an understanding of the description of the patterns of the contrastive differences that signal the various types of utterances: (1) questions, (2) statements, and (3) commands. It is also basic to comprehending the discussion of structural meanings under the following topics: "Subjects," "Objects," "Modifiers," "Sequence Sentences," and "Included Sentences." The author concludes the book with the statement:

> The chief value of a systematic analysis and description of the signals of structural meaning in English is the insight it can give concerning the way our language works, and, through English, into the nature and functioning of human languages [p. 296].

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[1] S. A. Leonard, *The Doctrine of Correctness in English Usage*. Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Press, 1929.

FRANCIS D. CURTIS and GEORGE GREISEN MALLINSON, *Science in Daily Life*. Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1953. Pp. xii+570. $3.96.

Curtis is well known in the field of science education for his many excellent contributions. It is a pleasure to see another of his publications, and particularly so since he has carried out so many of the worth-while ideas he has earlier helped to formulate in theory.

Science in Daily Life is a textbook designed for use at the ninth-grade level. It is organized around two frames of reference: (1) the environmental unit with social implications and (2) the fundamental science principles that are involved in understanding these aspects of the environment.

The idea of an environmental unit is not new, and the topics treated are standard for a ninth-grade textbook. The treatment of science principles, however, is unusual in its thoroughness and emphasis. Science principles are identified as they appear in the text with a superscript $^{(P)}$, and there is a list of science principles at the end of each unit. Even many of the pictures are pointed up with a question asking for the application of one or more principles.

The titles of the environmental units and the order in which they appear are as follows:

The Part of the Earth That Is Air
Water and Its Uses
Heat and Its Uses
The Nature and Importance of Weather and Climate
Light in Our Civilization
Into Space with the Astronomers
The Changing Earth and the Wealth It Contains
The Work of the World and What It Involves
Electricity in Our Civilization
The Living World
The Organism Called Man
Using Our Natural Resources Wisely
Communication in the Modern World
Transportation in the Modern World

Although the subject matter is heavily weighted on the side of the physical sciences, the imbalance is not so great as the ratio of the units dealing with physical science to other units, namely, about $11\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$, might lead one to believe. About one-fifth of the book is devoted purely to the biological sciences. In addition, some biology is interwoven in the other units when it is applicable. The reviewer considers the proportion appropriate in view of a number of investigations, such as those of Wise and Robertson, which show the importance of knowing various science principles in order to understand our environment.

The reviewer did not count the number of line diagrams and cross-section diagrams used, but it seems to him that a greater number of these are used than are ordinarily found in science books at this level. The large number of diagrams should be very helpful to teachers who are concerned with developing in their students the very important skill of interpreting such nonverbal communications. It should be added that there is no dearth of pictures, many in color.

Another noteworthy feature of this textbook is the help it provides for building vocabulary. New words are defined in footnotes on the pages where first used. This arrangement is a definite help to the student with a poor vocabulary, who often finds it too much trouble to look up the words because of the great number he does not know. Included also is help in pronouncing new words.

It was surprising to learn from page 300 that neutrons are used as bullets in cyclotrons. It seems unreasonable that uncharged particles could be used in machines that employ electric and magnetic fields as the accelerating forces. While neutrons are used in nuclear reactors (atomic piles), they are slowed down by moderators rather than accelerated.

Many students will probably be challenged to do experiments to test the explanation of "buoyancy" in the first two paragraphs of "Why rocks sink" on page 527. It would seem that they might wonder how an object more dense than water is ever sub-

merged until they read on through pages 528 and 529.

Students and teachers will welcome the check-up tests, summaries of principles and vocabulary, and the suggestions for further work at the end of each chapter. General-science teachers will welcome this book as a noteworthy contribution to science education.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

ALTHOUSE, J. G. *Structure and Aims of Canadian Education.* Toronto, Ontario: W. J. Gage & Co., Ltd. Pp. 78. $1.25.

BECK, ROBERT H.; COOK, WALTER W.; and KEARNEY, NOLAN C. *Curriculum in the Modern Elementary School.* New York 13: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953. Pp. viii+584. $4.95.

BOWMAN, PAUL H.; DIETERICH, WILLIAM J.; DEHAAN, ROBERT F.; HACKAMACK, HENRY; HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J.; JOHNSON, LAVONA A.; KING, ROBERT D.; and LITLE, LESTER O. *Studying Children and Training Counselors in a Community Program.* Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 75. The Youth Development Series, No. 2. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. viii+136 (processed). $1.50.

BRADY, DOMINIC. *An Analytical Study of Counseling Theory and Practice with Recommendations for the Philosophy of Counseling.* Washington 17: Catholic University of America Press, Inc., 1952. Pp. x+128. $1.50.

BURNETT, R. WILL. *Teaching Science in the Elementary School.* New York 16: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. xvi+542. $5.75.

BUTTS, R. FREEMAN, and CREMIN, LAWRENCE A. *A History of Education in American Culture.* New York 17: Henry Holt & Co., 1953. Pp. xii+628. $ 5.75.

CAMPBELL, H. L. *Curriculum Trends in Canadian Education.* Toronto 2, Ontario: W. J. Gage & Co., Ltd. Pp. 108. $2.00.

CARTWRIGHT, DORWIN, and ZANDER, ALVIN. *Group Dynamics: Research and Theory.* Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Co., 1953. Pp. xiv+642. $6.00.

CHISHOLM, LESLIE L. *The Work of the Modern High School.* New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1953. Pp. xii+542. $4.50.

The Content, Selection, and Use of Children's Literature. A Report of the Eighth Annual Conference on Reading, University of Pittsburgh, July 14—July 25, 1952. Compiled and edited by GERALD A. YOAKAM. Pittsburgh 13: University of Pittsburgh Press, [n.d.]. Pp. 190. $1.50.

COREY, STEPHEN M. *Action Research To Improve School Practices.* New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. Pp. xii+162. $3.00.

The Fourth Mental Measurements Yearbook. Edited by OSCAR KRISEN BUROS. Highland Park, New Jersey: Gryphon Press, 1953. Pp. xxiv+1164. $18.00.

Improving Transition from School to College: How Can School and College Best Cooperate? Edited by ARTHUR E. TRAXLER and AGATHA TOWNSEND. A Study of College Admission by the Committee on School and College Relations of the Educational Records Bureau. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1953. Pp. xviii+166. $2.75.

KNAPP, ROBERT H. *Practical Guidance Meth-*

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THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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FROM SCHOOL TO COLLEGE

READERS of this journal, no doubt, have been following with considerable interest the current concern over transition from school to college. The problem of articulation between high school and college is not new, of course. The Committee of Ten (1893) and the Committee on College Entrance Requirements (1899), to name only two, were appointed to deal with this question.

The Educational Records Bureau for more than a quarter of a century has concentrated attention on the problem. The Eight-Year Study, involving thirty high schools and a large number of colleges, also attacked this question. The reader will recall numerous other efforts to effect a smoother transition from high school to college.

Alvin C. Eurich, vice-president of the Fund for the Advancement of Education, considered this problem at the Seventeenth Educational Conference held last fall in New York under the joint auspices of the Educational Records Bureau and the American Council on Education. His address is reported in the proceedings of the conference published by the American Council under the title *Modern Educational Problems*. Eurich said:

> Growing out of the early recognition of the importance of the problem, of both extensive and intensive investigations, and of efforts to make the transition from school to college easier and more meaningful educationally, some progress has been made. I hasten to add, however, that the problem has by no means been solved. It remains one of the most critical and baffling problems in education.

The current renewed interest in this question has been stimulated in large part by the Fund for the Advancement of Education established by the Ford Foundation. Four projects supported by the Fund, while perhaps primarily concerned with promoting general education at this level, have been directed also at improving articulation between school and college.

The first project, the program for early admission to college, was launched in 1951, ostensibly as a pre-induction experiment. At that time it appeared that for some years ahead the education of many young men would be interrupted by the requirement of military service at, or soon after, the age of eighteen. In co-operation with four universities—Chicago, Columbia, Wisconsin, and Yale—a program was drawn up which provided for the admission to college of able young men sixteen and a half years of age or younger, most of whom would have completed only the tenth or eleventh grade in high school. The plan made it possible for able young men to complete two years of college by the age of eighteen and a half or younger. Substantial grants from the Fund to the participating colleges, including generous scholarships to the selected students, added to the attractiveness of the program. Indeed, the original announcement of the grant by the Fund aroused sufficient interest to warrant expansion of the program to include eight other colleges and universities: Fisk, Goucher, Lafayette, Louisville, Morehouse, Oberlin, Shimer, and Utah. In the two years during which the program has been in operation, 849 students, the majority of whom had completed only the tenth or eleventh grade, have been admitted to these twelve institutions.

A second project designed to attack the problem of transition from high school to college involved a joint effort by faculty members of three eastern preparatory schools—Andover, Exeter, and Lawrenceville—and three universities which receive many of their graduates, namely, Harvard, Princeton, and Yale. This project was concerned primarily with identifying those points at which the curriculums in the two sets of institutions overlap and in devising ways of shortening the length of time required to complete a general education through closer articulation.

A joint committee of these institutions has prepared a report (*General Education in School and College*, published by Harvard University Press) in which it is recommended that for qualified students a co-ordinated seven-year program be offered as an alternative to the present four years of high school and four years of college. The recommendation is based on the conviction, growing out of an examination of the curriculums in the preparatory schools and the colleges and experiments in closer articulation, that time now wasted in both high school and college could be saved by improved programs in both and by more effective means of transition.

A third project supported by the Fund is a collaborative effort between the public school system of Portland, Oregon, and Reed College. Through the active co-operation of faculty members of Reed College and teachers in the Portland schools, a city-wide program is being designed to enrich the educational opportunities for gifted public school pupils. Ways are being sought to co-ordinate this new

program with the common curriculum of the schools in order that the essential features may be available to as large a number as possible. The project involves the development of techniques for identifying the students who would benefit most from the program, the development of appropriate curriculum materials and methods of instruction, and the designing of instruments for evaluating the results of the program. The co-operation of other colleges is being sought in a follow-up study of the students from the program and for purposes of working out closer articulation between high school and college and to explore possibilities of acceleration at either the high-school or college level or both.

A fourth project, focused on the same general ends as the others, is concerned with the development of plans whereby able students might undertake, while still in high school, courses equivalent to those now taught in the first, or even second, year of college. The plan would make it possible for the better high-school graduates to enter college with advanced standing and thus be able to complete the Bachelor's degree in less than the four years usually required. It is believed that the abler high-school students could complete a whole year of college work while still in high school if the opportunities were open to them.

In the initial stages of the inquiry into the possibility of admission to college with advanced standing, a committee of colleges (Brown, Bowdoin, Carleton, Kenyon, M.I.T., Middlebury, Oberlin, Swarthmore, Wabash, Wesleyan, and Williams) was formed under the leadership of President Chalmers of Kenyon College. The committee later was enlarged to include twelve headmasters, principals, and superintendents. Close working relations were established with twenty-two secondary schools. Dr. William H. Cornog, on leave of absence from his post as president of Central High School in Philadelphia, is serving as executive director of the committee.

Several working committees, involving the participation of more than a hundred school and college teachers and administrators, are presently making an intensive study of eleven subject-matter fields commonly taught in college, with the view to ascertaining the extent to which high-school preparation in these areas might be enriched. Reports from these committees will be published this fall. The plan is to put the recommendations of these working committees into effect as quickly and as fully as possible. In the meantime, the central committee authorized pilot studies in seven schools and two colleges during the spring semester of 1953. These studies have attempted to identify and iron out practical operating problems.

An interim report of progress on the four projects described above was released in June by the Fund for the Advancement of Education (575 Madison Avenue, New York 22) under the

title *Bridging the Gap between School and College*. In announcing publication of this first report of progress, Clarence H. Faust, president of the Fund, said:

Leading educators have long been concerned about two closely connected defects of the American educational system which undermine quality and impose severe waste. First is the poor articulation between units of the system and the resulting lack of clarity as to each unit's function in relation to the whole. Second is the lack of sufficient flexibility to accommodate the wide differences of ability, interests, and maturity that prevail among young people of similar age. These defects, though they occur throughout the educational system, are most prominent and perhaps most serious in the four-year period comprising the eleventh through the fourteenth grades, including the troublesome transition from school to college. Their net result is a dulling of student interest in learning, a downgrading of educational results, and a waste of human resources, which are far greater today than before the turn of the century when such educators as Dewey and Eliot complained against them. With these considerations in mind, but with no preconceptions as to best solutions, the Fund for the Advancement of Education has given support to a combination of four promising experiments which attack this common problem from different directions.

The four projects are complementary, yet in some measure they also represent alternative approaches to the same goal. Their common and basic purpose is to improve the efficiency and quality of education, especially from the eleventh through the fourteenth years of schooling, both by providing a richer education during this time period and by accelerating the whole process, especially for more able students. Though their major focus is upon the better-than-average student who is perhaps the most seriously damaged by present shortcomings, the underlying concern and ultimate objective is the improvement of education for all young people.

At the University of Chicago the problem of developing a sound program of general education in the last years of high school and the first years of college and of effecting a better transition from high school to college has been a major interest throughout its history. Indeed, this problem was given high priority in the thinking and dreams of its first president, William Rainey Harper, even before the doors of the University opened in 1892. As the whole educational world knows, former Chancellor Hutchins devoted much of his time and energy during his term of twenty-two years to the development of a program of general education. The College of the University of Chicago, embracing the last two years of high school and the first two years of college, was established to develop a program of general education and to effect a new transition from high school to college. For a period of several years the College has awarded the Bachelor's degree upon completion of the program of general education. Graduates of the College who wished to continue their studies at the University entered three-year programs leading to the Master's degree.

Readers of this journal have followed, perhaps, the press reports which have described the controversy on the campus over the relocation of the Bachelor's degree and proposals

for improving the University's relations with secondary schools and with sister-institutions of higher education. These academic debates, usually a healthy sign on any campus, have resulted in some misunderstanding and confusion in educational circles. In an effort to clarify the issues and to report accurately the changes which are being made, Chancellor Kimpton chose to discuss the problem in his convocation address to the graduating class this spring. The general national interest in the problem of transition from school to college and the University's historic role in attempting to do something about it, warrants extensive quotation from the Chancellor's address:

> What I am saying to you now the University has been saying to itself all year, and today I propose to discuss the place of undergraduate education in the University of Chicago, first in terms of the knowledge we have gained about it from our past achievements and then in terms of the changes needed to incorporate it with the present and with the more visible portions of the future.
>
> What, then, are the educational values which the College sought to realize over the past twenty years? It began upon the simple premise that there is an education that should be common to all intelligent people. If men are to communicate, they can only understand and appreciate one another's ideas against a background of common knowledge. It is this education which we call general education as opposed to that specialized training through which men develop expertness within a special field of knowledge. How can such a program of general education best be devised and taught? This was so large and important a question that a separate faculty was established which would have as its exclusive concern the creation and teaching of a curriculum in general studies. It was to be a basic education providing a background for communication, a basis for the enrichment of personal experiences, and a foundation for good citizenship. In order to create this separate faculty and clothe it with the stature and dignity necessary for its important job, it was granted the privilege of awarding the most valued of undergraduate degrees, the Bachelor of Arts. Along with this interest in devising a program of general education went a strong interest in the problem of high-school education and its relationship to the process of higher education. Time is wasted in the Junior and Senior years of high school, and its program is unrelated to the system of higher studies beginning at the college level. These are the fundamental considerations which brought about the program which we have come to call the College of the University of Chicago. . . .
>
> But certain problems, both practical and theoretical, developed in the actual operation of this program, and the charges that have just been made are designed to solve these problems. Let's start with the practical problems. The College began at the eleventh grade to point up dramatically the weakness of the high-school program. This move, understandably, did not generate any lively enthusiasm, to say the least, among the people in the field of secondary education. The program cut their activities in two and drained off their students at the Junior and Senior levels. They did not counsel their students to enter the program at the first-year level of the College, nor did they send their teachers to the University to learn the content and techniques of general education so that the high-school programs could be upgraded in quality and material.
>
> The second problem that developed concerned our relationships with our sister-institutions of higher education. It was the

original expectation that many institutions of higher education would shortly follow us in awarding the Bachelor of Arts degree for general education at the end of the fourteenth grade, or traditional Sophomore year in college. But none of them did. The result was embarrassing. A graduate of the most distinguished program of general studies in the country was often admitted to another institution as a Junior. When we protested such treatment, and proved by the Graduate Record Examination that our students were equal in training and competence to any in the country, it was pointed out that our own Divisions required three years beyond our Bachelor's degree for the Master's degree, so that we were treating our College graduates as Juniors too. A variation of this annoying problem was that students who entered the College program after graduation from high school—and most of them did enter at this level—were generally set back a year by the placement examinations. Consequently there were six years between high-school graduation and the Master's degree. And thus a system that had acceleration as one of its original virtues began to operate in reverse.

This unfortunate relationship with secondary schools and with institutions of higher education, including our own, pointed up a problem that starts as a practical problem but shortly becomes one of genuine educational importance. . . . How do we better relate outselves to the total educational process—to the secondary system of education in this country, so that we improve and upgrade it by the things that we have learned; to our sister-institutions of higher education so that they may profit by the program of general studies that we have devised; and, finally, to our own divisions of specialization?

The final problem I wish to discuss with you is the most fundamental of all, since it is essentially one of educational philosophy. The problem arises from the fact that the phrase "general education" has become a national slogan, and once a phrase becomes a slogan it takes on so many meanings that it runs the danger of losing any clear meaning, even to those who shout it. In fact, it is fairly safe to say: the louder the shouting, the fainter the meaning. . . .

Of the many meanings attached to the term "general education," let us concentrate on the two that seem most fundamental to us. An education that gives its students a *general* view of the important intellectual achievements of man is indeed general education. It is concerned with imparting an understanding of both the interrelations among these achievements and their differences in materials and methods. Its aim is to produce men and women who know that nothing is alien to them which is of fundamental importance to humanity. The men and women whom I know and respect have this first general education—a wide view of human achievements—but also something in addition—a special grasp of some field of human endeavor in which they move with confidence and purpose, adding to it contributions of their own. The second concept of general education, therefore, is the combination of an understanding of the achievements of others and at least a start toward self-achievement. It is a general education because it is the kind of education generally needed by those persons like yourselves who come to our University. . . .

I come now to the decisions arrived at recently by the Council of the University Senate, "the supreme academic body of the University," decisions arrived at after more than a year of study of the problems, both practical and theoretical, that I have just outlined. In restating the Council's decisions, I shall try to emphasize their structure and rationale, on the assumption that what circulates most freely and widely are small, scattered pieces of decisions and not their large intentions and connections.

Point Number One.—Hereafter, all programs leading to Bachelor's degrees will provide a general education in the two

basic senses I have previously defined. They will give the student a broad understanding of man's most important scientific and humanistic achievements; in addition, the student will be given at least a start toward the mastery of a field in which he shows special interest and promise. Since the student will be given both, he will have the kind of education, *generally* speaking, that should bring out the best in him and in us.

Point Number Two.—Several different Bachelor's degrees will be given hereafter, but basically they are of two sorts. The College will award a B.A., the program for which will consist of the present College program plus approximately a year of intensive study in a general field. The second Bachelor's degree will be jointly administered and awarded by the College and the various Divisions. The proportion of general and specialized work will vary with departments, since some, such as the foreign-language departments, must begin with students who commonly have little command over any language other than their own, whereas a department such as philosophy recognizes that our College gives its students unusual preparation in its field. But in no case will students be awarded a Bachelor's degree without demonstrating a thorough grasp of the main fields of knowledge and the main forms of communication.

With these degrees, the University will draw a wide diversity of students. Those who wish to take the full College program may still do so, and we hope that many can and will. But there are able students who are short of money or short of time, especially as the result of military service. There are also able students who, although wishing a wide background, have early been especially curious about one part of the intellectual scene and are impatient to start exploring it. Most of these will probably find the second of the degrees more suitable.

With only one fixed undergraduate program we were becoming unwittingly more exclusive in certain senses than many eastern schools. But it was the intention of this midwestern university from the beginning to ask only that its students be able and willing, and to think that it was more a part of the land on which it stood if its students were poor and rich, young and mature, left and right, and odd and even.

Point Number Three.—All the new Bachelor's degrees are four-year degrees in that they begin at the traditional Freshman level rather than at the eleventh grade. Our program, therefore, will be related to the total American educational process, and we can begin to train teachers in secondary schools in our materials and techniques. But in two important senses they are not four-year degrees. We shall continue to test performance by placement and comprehensive examinations, and therefore not the calendar of Julius Caesar but ability and preparation determine the time needed to complete the program. Moreover, we have no four-year degrees in the sense that students must complete four years of high school before being admitted to the College. Students are admitted into the College on the same basis as they complete it—on the basis of ability and preparation as demonstrated by examination. The University is forever concerned about the able youngster who is wilting on some high-school vine. He should come here immediately and bear fruit.

These, then, are the main changes that have been made this year in our undergraduate education in order to relate it more closely to the University and to the American educational process as a whole.

The University of Buffalo Experiment

For twenty years or more the University of Buffalo has carried on an experiment designed to eliminate unnecessary duplication of work

in college on the part of superior high-school students and to provide a means of acceleration. This program, originating under former Chancellor Samuel P. Capen and known as "anticipatory examinations for college credit," provides for the granting of college credit for work done in high school beyond that required for graduation. This has been done through examinations built and graded by college departments in subject areas corresponding to their own course offerings.

During the period from 1932 through 1946, a total of 1,496 persons took 2,730 examinations under the plan. Of the 2,730 examinations written, 2,227, or 81 per cent, resulted in credit. The maximum college credit earned by a high-school graduate has been 38 hours, or more than a year of college credit.

A report on the Buffalo plan was recently published under the title *Anticipatory Examinations for College Credit: Twenty Years Experience at the University of Buffalo*. Prepared by Mazie E. Wagner, it is published as Volume XX, Number 3, of the University of Buffalo Studies. The report closes with the conclusions quoted below:

I. College credit examinations are very valuable to the able student who passes them. They save him time, money, and energy. They give him a psychological boost for, having passed them, he feels assured that he is the kind of person who can succeed in college. They permit him to find his academic and intellectual level and so keep him alert, interested, and active rather than bored and unproductive. Finally they show him early in his academic life how to prepare and master academic data on his own with the minimum of help from others.

II. College credit examinations are very valuable to the college that provides them for its ablest students, since they attract such students to the institution, assuming that most colleges desire to attract the cream of the crop. Earning college credit by examinations attracts able non-college-oriented students as well as perhaps some of those who might otherwise attend another institution.

Further advantages to the college are that as its faculty develop syllabi for the use of the applicants for these examinations, the professors writing them for the public eye become more critical of their course content and make changes where changes are in order. Also, institutions sending their able graduates to a college providing these examinations frequently enrich the curriculum for their superior secondary students in course content, as well as that the students themselves take a more nearly capacity load of class work.

III. College credit examinations are decidedly valuable to society at large. They show superior students, particularly those relatively indigent, how they may progress through college with less expenditure of time and money, and so salvage more of these able young people for higher education where they may develop themselves to a position of greater leadership and productivity for their society. Another advantage to society is the additional advanced degrees earned on the part of these superior young people. Last but by no means least, college credit examination bring these superior graduates into economic productivity and leadership sooner which is of especial value in these years of extreme manpower shortage.

A Center for the Study of Human Behavior

Ralph W. Tyler, professor of education, dean of the Division of the Social Sciences, and University examiner at the University of Chicago, has recently been named director of the Center for the Study of Behavioral Sciences established by the Ford Foundation. As executive head of the Center, Dr. Tyler will administer a program for advanced study of individual behavior and human relations.

Through an initial grant of $3,500,000 covering a six-year period, the Center will bring together each year approximately fifty scholars and scientists of first rank for advanced study and training. The objectives of the Center are: (1) to increase as rapidly as possible the number of highly competent scholars and scientists dealing with problems of human behavior; (2) to provide further opportunities for advanced study for present faculty members; (3) to encourage collaboration across traditional departmental lines; and (4) to make available new designs and materials for advanced study for use in graduate schools throughout the country.

In announcing the appointment of Dr. Tyler as director of the Center, Dr. Frank Stanton, chairman of the Center's Board of Directors and president of the Columbia Broadcasting System, said: "Dr. Tyler is especially well equipped to serve as director of the Center. He was chairman of the planning group composed of eminent scholars in the behavioral sciences that recommended the establishment of the Center and designated its major characteristics. As an expert in the field of educational psychology, he is a recognized leader in the behavioral sciences in this country."

Dr. Tyler has resigned from his several positions in the University to take up his new duties on October 1.

Parent Education

A project in parent education has been established at the University of Chicago with a two-year grant from the Fund for Adult Education of the Ford Foundation. The project is being directed by Miss Ethel Kawin, professorial lecturer in the Department of Education in the University. According to Miss Kawin, the purpose of the Parent Education Project is "to help parents create for their children the kind of environment conducive to the development of mature, responsible citizens, able to build, to function in, and to maintain a free, democratic society."

The first undertaking of the Project will be the selection and preparation of materials for an experimental basic course in parent education. The basic course will be designed for study-discussion groups in parent education and will consist of packets of booklets, articles, discussion guides, suggested reading references, and other appropriate materials. Suitable films, radio and television programs, recordings, and other instructional media will be

identified and made available to study groups.

Following the preparation of the materials, the basic course will be tried out experimentally in a number of communities under the guidance of trained leaders. After the experimental materials have been tested in the pilot communities, the materials for the basic course will be distributed widely to interested groups.

Present plans call for the development, in addition to the basic course, of a series of supplementary courses adapted to various levels of child development—infancy, early childhood, middle childhood, pre-adolescence, and adolescence. These supplementary courses will also be tried out experimentally before being made available for wide distribution.

Early School Leavers

One of the baffling problems which confront teachers and school administrators is the pupil who leaves high school before graduation for reasons within his own control. We pride ourselves in this country, as well we might, on our free public school system, extending almost universally through high school and in many communities beyond. Free education, so highly prized by millions in the world who cannot have it, is virtually placed on a platter and put before our youth. And yet many refuse the fare. Why?

In an effort to find out why so many young people in the state leave high school before graduation, a study of the problem was undertaken through the sponsorship of the Kentucky Association of Colleges, Secondary, and Elementary Schools. The study was undertaken to "discover evidence which would indicate early signs of vulnerability to early school leaving and to determine measures secondary schools in Kentucky might take to increase their holding power." More specifically, the study undertook:

> To determine significant factors associated with early school leavers.
>
> To ascertain from former secondary-school pupils in selected communities of Kentucky factors relating to their termination of secondary-school education.
>
> To identify significant characteristics and symptoms which influence certain youth to discontinue their education before secondary-school graduation.
>
> To develop implications and recommendations for secondary schools in Kentucky for the purpose of increasing the holding power of these schools.

The study was limited to those youth who left high school in the state before graduation because of reasons within their own control during the period 1948–50 and who did not reenrol in another school to complete their secondary-school education. A summary of the findings of the study is contained in the following excerpt:

> As indicated by data collected, analyzed, and reported in this investigation there appear to be certain symptoms or signs of vulnerability to possible early school leaving which may be identified. Early recognition of these signs and prompt action by local school personnel would reduce the incidence of early school leaving and thereby increase the holding power of the secondary schools of Kentucky.

Evidence seems to indicate that many pupils who withdraw from Kentucky secondary schools prior to graduation experience frequent grade failure and retention in the elementary school. Failure and repetition of the first grade is particularly noticeable.

Data presented in the study emphasize the regression in scholarship evidenced by early school leavers as they progress from the elementary to junior to senior high schools.

Failure or lack of opportunity to participate in extra-curriculum activities seems to be a definite characteristic which may be observed in recognizing those pupils vulnerable to early school leaving.

Evidence seems to indicate that early school leavers of Kentucky come from homes which are typical for all youth fourteen to seventeen years of age in the United States.

There is no evidence that any relationship exists between the number of children in the family and the probability of one of the youth leaving secondary school before graduation.

Early school leavers of Kentucky seem to be pupils in the local school system for several years before they withdraw. The findings of the study reveal that the early school leavers have very few, if any, transfers.

Preference for work was given as the primary reason for leaving secondary school before graduation by the greatest number of youth included in the study. Over half of all reasons (primary and contributing) for leaving school were concerned with the school.

Most of the youth leaving school withdrew without consulting any of the personnel connected with the school.

The youth suggested the secondary schools of Kentucky should provide some program of work experience. Other leading suggestions were for the school to provide specific vocational instruction and an opportunity for more participation in school activities.

Business, shop experience, and home economics were the subjects most often indicated by the early school leavers in Kentucky as the subjects most needed or desired since leaving secondary school.

Television Omnibus

The crucial need for educational television has been the subject of a great deal of discussion in educational literature and in the public press during the last two or three years. By educational television is usually meant television stations or channels owned and operated by educational or public agencies as contrasted with commercial television. Much of the agitation for educational television is based on the assumption that commercial companies are unwilling or unable to produce programs of educational value or that such programs would, at best, be the exception rather than the rule. It is often argued that, inasmuch as the chief source of income is from sponsors who have things to sell, the quality of programs will inevitably remain low. The history of radio and of television to date gives some grounds for this view. Much of the fare offered listeners is anything but educational, and it is altogether possible that only strong competition from educational television is likely to bring about much change.

Attention should be drawn, however, to the unusually fine programs which most of the networks have provided from time to time. Notable

among these is the series of twenty-six programs under the title "Omnibus" which were produced by the TV-Radio Workshop of the Ford Foundation and shown through the facilities of the CBS television network each Sunday afternoon.

These exceptionally fine educational programs were broadcast in 59 American cities to 76 per cent of the country's 21,955,000 television-equipped homes. A total of 13,340,000 persons viewed a single program, and an average of 10,750,000 saw "Omnibus" throughout the season.

The TV-Radio Workshop with its initial "Omnibus" series has shown that standard television in the United States can become an important means of conserving and increasing our knowledge and enriching our culture. "Omnibus" provided for advertising messages in each program, and the cost of the series was early assumed by five corporations.

Teaching Values

As anyone who has followed educational literature in recent years must have observed, teachers and administrators at all school levels are genuinely concerned about the problem of teaching values, be they moral values, spiritual values, or values in any other area of personal and social living. This deep concern stems from our growing conviction, first, that, if we are to achieve the good life and the good society, all men and women, and boys and girls, too, must develop for themselves a set of values to guide their behavior and, second, that the schools must assume increasing responsibility for helping children and young people to achieve a philosophy of life based upon value patterns in keeping with the tenets of a democratic society and in harmony with the basic religious principles of Western civilization.

Dr. Joseph Axelrod, associate professor of humanities and curriculum evaluation at San Francisco State College, has contributed to our thinking in this area in a stimulating article in the March, 1953, issue of the *California Journal of Secondary Education* entitled "The Teaching of Values in the Changing Community." In the following excerpts Mr. Axelrod offers useful suggestions to teachers who are struggling with the problem of teaching values:

> In order to think through to a solution, educators may find the following basic distinction between two types of value principles a useful one: (*a*) a *method* value principle, and (*b*) a *content* value principle.
>
> A method value principle sets forth a way of looking at data or of approaching a problem; such a principle does not assert what is to be believed or held as does a content value principle, but asserts only a way in which one is to arrive at the content principles which he comes to hold. For example: "A national government ought to punish any individual who preaches its overthrow" is an assertion of a content principle. A method principle would be of this kind: "Even though one is certain of his answer to any question, he ought to operate under the assumption that he may change his mind in the future." Both examples state values; the first might be labeled the value of "national security," and the second might be

called the value of "open-mindedness." Whether they are right or wrong values is not here the question. The point is that they are of different kinds—one of them asserting a given content of belief, the other setting forth a given method of arriving at or treating the content values one holds.

In the foregoing distinction, the educator may find a key to the teaching of values, especially if his concern is with an institution such as the public school which is charged with the task of serving the needs of communities that today, with rare exceptions, are changing with astounding rapidity and the dominant values of which are both heterogeneous and unstable. Whereas there are great difficulties in reading widespread agreement about the content values which should serve as ends of education, it is easier to reach agreement about which method values might serve as educational ends.

It would be foolish to pretend that, once such agreement had been obtained, the major difficulties would cease; it is probably truer to say that they will have just begun. The first difficulty is the translation of the *method* value principles into attitudinal and behavioral goals. . . . The second is to modify the written curriculum in terms of the new goals, so that they are seen in an additional dimension in which some suggestions are offered as to the means that might be employed in the attainment of these goals.

The most difficult of the steps is that of translating the written curriculum into a real curriculum—i.e., of making the actual classroom experiences of the pupil meaningful and effective in terms of the stated goals. It would appear that this very difficulty is the one which, at present, is responsible for the degree of educational failure which is so apparent on the secondary-school and undergraduate college levels. Good written curriculums so often remain untranslated into pupil experience in the classroom. One of the reasons why method goals are rarely translated into pupil experience which encourages practice in the skills leading to those goals is that teachers everywhere are so concerned about covering a certain subject matter.

One of the advantages of educational goals which are behavioral translations of method value principles is that they call forth no compulsion to cover all the content in the area being studied. The frequency of this compulsion indicates that it meets a great need among high-school and college teachers in that it provided at once a weapon for self-laceration and an excellent protection against any "new" ideas that might suggest goals other than content coverage.

When a unit of teaching focuses, however, on the attainment of an end expressed as a method value, then the study of content values becomes unavoidable; yet such study, within that framework, carries with it no necessity on the part of the teacher to uphold the superiority of any single content principle over another. The teacher, therefore, by taking method values as his goals does not find himself forced out of neutral position during a discussion of some situation calling for consideration of content value principle, for his concern is not with the teaching of this or that specific content value but rather with creating the kinds of experiences for the student which will aid the attainment of method value goals.

HAROLD A. ANDERSON

Who's Who for October

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by Harold A. Anderson, assistant professor of education and executive secretary of the Committee on Preparation of Teachers, the University of Chicago. Leonard V. Koos, professor of education at the University of Chicago, in the first of three articles dealing with junior high school reorganization, gives the historical background of the movement and an inventory of the growth and status of reorganized schools. John W. McFarland, assistant professor of curriculum and instruction at the University of Texas, states the purposes of the home room, points out why these purposes are often unrealized, and suggests ways of making the home room more effective. Bertis E. Capehart, assistant superintendent in charge of instruction in the Oak Ridge, Tennessee, public schools; Allen Hodges, director of guidance and school psychologist for the Oak Ridge public schools; and Robert Roth, head guidance counselor at the Oak Ridge High School, give the results of a study which measures the gains in English skills and in critical thinking made by high-school students in a core group in comparison with gains made by students in a non-core group. James J. Thompson, teacher of biology at Central High School, Newark, New Jersey, presents a unit on bacterial diseases which was developed to help train students in the scientific method of thought. George A. C. Scherer, associate professor of modern languages and modern-language education at the University of Colorado, describes the background of teacher-training candidates in Bavaria, some of the requirements that they must meet, their training program, and how their performance is evaluated. Paul B. Jacobson, dean of the School of Education, University of Oregon, and Robert R. Wiegman, assistant professor of education at the University of Portland, Portland, Oregon, present a list of references on the organization and administration of secondary education.

Reviewers of books Arthur E. Traxler, executive director of the Educational Records Bureau, New York City. John A. Ramseyer, professor of education at Ohio State University. Cyril O. Houle, professor of education at the University of Chicago. Roland C. Faunce, associate professor of education at Wayne University.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL REORGANIZATION AFTER A HALF-CENTURY

I. Growth and Status of Reorganization

LEONARD V. KOOS
University of Chicago

*

It is now about a half-century since the establishment and operation of prototypes of the junior high school, and an appropriate point at which to take stock of the reorganization movement. Although it is only something over forty years since the establishment of three-year units in Columbus, Ohio, and in Berkeley and Los Angeles, California, there had been two-year units and six-year high schools including Grades VII and VIII ten or more years earlier. Thus, the span of existence of reorganized schools may properly be considered as extending over a period of about fifty years. Advocacy of reorganization, to be sure, reaches back much further.

His own long-time interest in the movement has prompted the present writer to undertake this inventory of the growth and status of the movement and a review of thinking regarding it and to consider the prospects of further reorganization. His book was one of the first two commercial publications[1] dealing exclusively with the new unit although a few noncommercial monographs were in print before it. A stock-taking seems desirable in view of a questioning attitude toward the movement in some quarters, which is reflected in occasional periodical articles appearing recently with captions like "Has the Junior High School Kept Its Promise?" and "Has the Junior High School Made Good?" and in consideration of similar questions from time to time at educational discussions here and there throughout the country.

In the main, the writer's preparation for this inventory is more or less continuous contact with the movement for more than a third of a century. This contact has involved first-hand visits extending from 1915 to 1951 to upwards of two hundred schools of several existing patterns of reorganization—visits that were often accompanied by participation in sur-

[1] Leonard V. Koos, *The Junior High School*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Howe, 1920. This book was republished in an "enlarged edition" by Ginn and Company in 1927, and this later edition has been out of print for many years. The other commercial book published in the same year was Thomas H. Briggs's *The Junior High School*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920.

veys of the schools and school systems represented. The observations from these contacts have been extended by canvassing all available recently published literature, including books and articles in periodicals dealing with junior high school reorganization. The literature includes all reports of research on status and trends. The firsthand contacts and the reading have been supplemented by information given in current materials relating to purposes, programs, and activities in junior high schools—materials supplied by administrators in twenty-four school systems in sixteen states distributed to all sections of the nation and representing more than a hundred individual school situations.

GROWTH AND STATUS OF REORGANIZATION

Report on the growth and status of junior high school reorganization during the earlier decades of the movement is hampered by the lack of systematic and official counts of schools and systems operating under the new plans. Among the earliest enumerations are those prepared by Douglass[2] and Briggs,[3] but an indication of trends in them, except in a very general way, is hardly possible because the data are not comparable with those in later compilations. The United States Office of Education, the logical agency for assembling such information, did not make a systematic count of reorganized schools until 1922. Fortunately for purposes here, the Office has made counts on roughly comparable bases at intervals since that year; and from the compilations which are reported in Table 1, it is possible to note the growth from 1922 to 1952. Figure 1, based on the evidence in the table, has been prepared to aid in interpreting the information. The inclusion in the table and figure of evidence concerning "regular" high schools, that is, four-year high schools in unreorganized systems, makes possible a direct comparison of numbers and proportions of reorganized with unreorganized schools.

The general impression afforded by the table and figure is one of rapid and almost steady growth of reorganization and gain over unreorganized schools throughout the thirty-year period represented. By the end of the period, reorganized schools substantially outnumbered the regular high schools. A mere cursory glance at the rate of increase will find it to have been fully as rapid during the latest interval as during any previous period.

Evidence in the table and figure is presented in such a way as to show the proportionate contributions of separate junior high schools, separate senior high schools, and junior-senior high schools to the total reorganization. However, the numbers and proportions of schools of the various combinations of grades, such as three-

[2] Aubrey A. Douglass, *The Junior High School*, pp. 27, 140–45. Fifteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part III. Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education (5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1916.

[3] Thomas H. Briggs, *op. cit.*, pp. 60–62.

grade junior high schools, are not shown, and this information is not regularly available. In 1930 the National Survey of Secondary Education co-operated with the Office of Education in gathering the evidence concerning reorganization and inquired into the grade patterns of reorganization. Table 2 is based on information gathered for the Survey and discloses the grade-groupings reported for 5,740 schools in what are referred to in the report as the "major" patterns of reorganization. The small number of remaining reorganized schools identified in that year were of less common grade patterns, like two-grade senior high schools and one-grade junior high schools. It is clear from this table that in 1930 the predominant grade-groupings involved three-grade junior high schools, three-grade senior high schools, and six-year schools reported to be on a 3–3 or "undivided" basis.

It may be noted that, while Table 1 contains the category "junior-senior high schools," Table 2 lists both "junior-senior" and "undivided" six-year and five-year high schools. This is because, for the first table utilized here, the compiler combined the two under a single category, although he reports (in the textual interpretation) the number of "undivided" high schools as having increased from 3,060 to 3,326 from 1938 to 1946 and, therefore, accounting for the entire increase of the "junior-senior" classification during that interval.

This writer, having been a party to the compilation of the status of reorganization in 1930, is disposed to belittle the significance of the distinction

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF THE VARIOUS TYPES OF PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1922–52*

Type	1922		1930		1938		1946		1952†	
	Number	Per Cent of Total	Number	Per Cent of Total	Number	Per Cent of Total	Number	Per Cent of Total	Number	Per Cent of Total
Junior high schools	387	2.8	1,842	8.3	2,372	9.6	2,647	11.1	3,227	13.6
Junior-senior high schools	1,088	7.7	3,287	14.8	6,203	25.2	6,358	26.5	8,591	36.2
Senior high schools	91	0.6	648	2.9	959	3.9	1,317	5.5	1,760	7.4
All reorganized schools	1,566	11.1	5,777	26.0	9,534	38.7	10,322	43.1	13,578	57.2
Regular high schools	12,490	88.9	16,460	74.0	15,056	61.3	13,625	56.9	10,168	42.8
Total	14,056	100.0	22,237	100.0	24,590	100.0	23,947	100.0	23,746	100.0

* Based, for evidence for 1922, 1930, 1938, and 1946 on *Statistics of Public High Schools, 1945–46*, Table VII, p. 11. United States Office of Education, *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1944–46*, chap. v. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1949.

Based, for 1952, on information supplied in correspondence with this writer by the United States Office of Education.

† Includes for this year small high schools with enrolment from 1 to 9.

between the terms "junior-senior" and "undivided" as applied to these compilations, for he recalls that no criteria were set up to distinguish the schools represented. The heads of the schools and systems were left to their own discretion in reporting their organizations under these classifications. It is not that there is no distinction in theory between a "junior-senior" and an "undivided" school but that, in actual practice, one school reported as an undivided six-year school might be effecting as much or more separation between junior and senior levels than another one reported to operate on a junior-senior basis. For the purposes here of reviewing growth and trends, these two categories may be regarded as a single inclusive group.

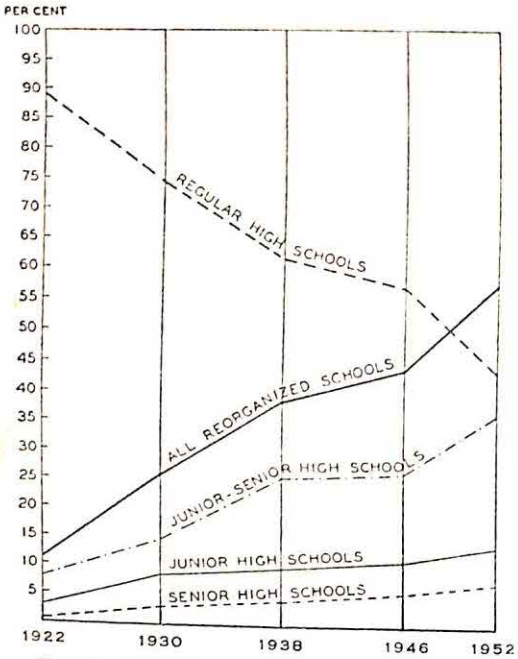

FIG. 1.—Per cent that junior high schools, senior high schools, junior-senior high schools, all reorganized schools, and regular high schools were of all public secondary schools in 1922, 1930, 1938, 1946, and 1952 (based on data in Table 1).

In some ways a better measure of growth and status of reorganization than has been reported in Table 1 and Figure 1 is to be found in the per cents of all pupils who are enrolled in reorganized and in regular high schools. The latter give us a more nearly direct measure of the actual proportion of the school population brought under the influence of reorganized schools. The specific measures used here are the per cents of all pupils in the last four high-school years (usually, but

TABLE 2

NUMBERS OF REORGANIZED SCHOOLS OF DIFFERENT GRADE-GROUPINGS IN 1929–30*

Type of School	Number	Type of School	Number
Junior high schools:		Junior-senior and undivided schools:	
Two-grade	204	Junior-senior, 3–3	936
Three-grade	1,348	Junior-senior, 2–4	637
Four-grade	196	Undivided, 6-year	1,446
Senior high schools:		Undivided, 5-year	65
Three-grade	496		
Four-grade	142	Total	5,470

* Based on Francis T. Spaulding, O. I. Frederick, and Leonard V. Koos, *The Reorganization of Secondary Education*, Fig. 3, p. 53. National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 5. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1932, No. 17.

not always, Grades IX–XII) in reorganized systems and in regular high schools, irrespective of the grade-grouping of the system. The per cents for certain years at intervals beginning with 1922 are shown both in Table 3 and in Figure 2. To save space, the numbers of pupils are not reproduced, although it may be reported illustratively that, for 1952, a total of 5,673,867 pupils in these four grades is represented, 3,739,622 in reorganized and 1,934,245 in regular high schools.

TABLE 3

PER CENTS OF PUPILS IN THE LAST FOUR HIGH-SCHOOL YEARS ENROLLED IN REORGANIZED AND IN REGULAR HIGH SCHOOLS, 1922–52*

Year	Per Cent of Pupils	
	In Reorganized Schools	In Regular Schools
1922	13.5	86.5
1926	28.3	71.7
1930	33.9	66.1
1934	37.0	63.0
1938	45.6	54.4
1946	50.9	49.1
1952	65.9	34.1

* Data for 1922, 1926, 1930, 1934, and 1938 based on *Statistics of Public High Schools, 1937–38*, Fig. 2, p. 10. *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*, chap. v. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1940, No. 2.
Data for 1946 based on *Statistics of Public High Schools, 1945–46*, Table 9, pp. 36–39. *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1944–46*, chap. v.
Data for 1952 based on information supplied in correspondence with this writer by the United States Office of Education.

The evidence in this table and figure as compared with that in Table 1 and Figure 1 underscores the rapidity of the rate of reorganization throughout the period. Reorganization, measured in this way, had become numerically predominant by 1946, and by 1952 reorganized schools enrolled approximately two-thirds of all pupils in the last four high-school years of public secondary schools. When attention is directed to the rates of increment during individual intervals, it may be noted that the only two during which there was marked retardation of rate were the interval immediately following 1930 and that between 1938 and 1946. The reader can explain for himself the first of these slowdowns by the early years of the great depression. When resources were again available for building construction, on which reorganization must usually wait, the re-acceleration shown between 1934

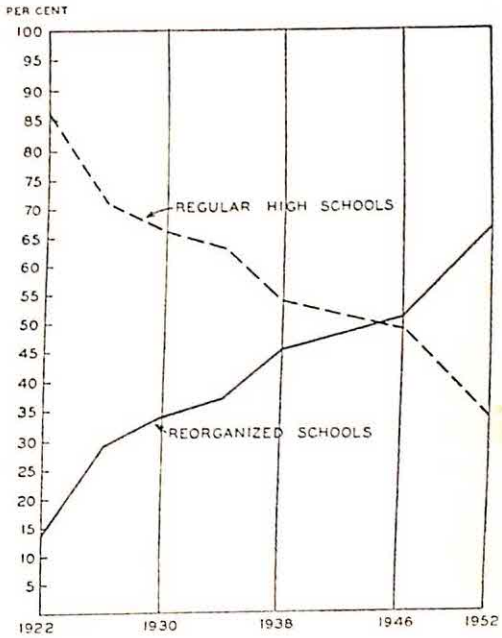

FIG. 2.—Per cents of all pupils enrolled in the last four high-school years in 1922 to 1952 who were enrolled in reorganized and in regular high schools (based on Table 2).

and 1938 took place. The clamping-down of priorities on building materials before and during World War II will explain the second retardation, which was in turn followed by another and striking re-acceleration.

Still another indication of the status and growth of reorganization is to be found in the proportions of all pupils in Grades VII and VIII in public schools that were enrolled in reorganized schools. The per cent of these pupils advanced between 1946 and 1952 in Grade VII from 37.5 to 47.0; in Grade VIII, from 44.4 to 55.8; and in both grades combined, from 39.3 to 51.2. In this measure, also, reorganized schools have attained numerical predominance.

Before leaving consideration of the numerical status and trends of junior high school reorganization, it is desirable to draw, for purposes of comparison, on the evidence and conclusions in this particular area from a rather recent inquiry reported in a Bulletin issued by the Research Division of the National Education Association.[4] The specific materials referred to here concern the (1) "patterns of organization" and (2) "changes in the number of junor high schools in operation" in city school systems.

The tabulation of patterns of organization as reported from 1,372 city systems in this inquiry yielded the following proportionate frequencies: 6–3–3, 35 per cent; 8–4, 23 per cent; 6–6, 16 per cent; 6–2–4, 12 per cent; 6–3–3–2, 4 per cent; 7–5, 3 per cent; 5–3–4, 2 per cent; 6–2–4–2, 1 per cent; 7–2–3, 1 per cent; "other," 3 per cent. In commenting on the evidence, the Bulletin says: "In these cities the 6–3–3 plan of organization . . . is used as the prevailing type more frequently than any other. Nevertheless, this plan is the prevailing type in only about one-third of the city systems." In further comment, the Bulletin says that the diversity of plans "demonstrates rather clearly that variation and experimentation is still the order of the day in the matter of school organization and that as yet no single pattern has become the clearly dominant type."[5] The interpretation, while correct as to the external evidence, overlooks the impressively important fact underlying the figures: that the patterns involving *some* plan of junior high school reorganization, designed to serve the early adolescent better than does the traditional organization, include all those groupings listed excepting the 8–4, and, probably, also some of the 3 per cent of "other" patterns. The total of the per cents of all the reorganized patterns is not less than 74, which is more than three times the proportion still following the traditional plan.

The Research Bulletin referred to, in a section called "The Junior High School, 1938 to 1948" also reports in a table the changes in the numbers of junior high schools in operation in

[4] *Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948*. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXVII, No. 1. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1949.

[5] *Ibid.*, pp. 10–11.

1,598 city school systems during the ten-year interval represented. Following are sentences from the interpretation of the table.

> For the most part, the table indicates comparatively little change with respect to junior high schools, especially in the groups of smaller cities. . . . In the larger cities the number of junior high schools has fluctuated somewhat more than in the smaller ones; but no important net increase has occurred. . . .
>
> When allowance is made for those [junior high schools] undoubtedly established merely because of population growth in cities already having the junior high school unit, it is apparent that the number of school systems changing from the traditional elementary-secondary plan to a pattern of elementary, junior high, and senior high schools has been relatively small.[6]

Here again the interpretation accords with the evidence in the table referred to, while at the same time leaving unsaid much that would afford a better understanding of reorganizational trends. In the first place, during the most of the span of years represented, as may be inferred from what was said above in interpreting Table 3 and Figure 2, materials for construction were not available for new housing that would have been required for any significant increase in the number of junior units. As soon as priorities were lifted, re-acceleration was resumed. In the second place, as may be judged from the comment above on other grade patterns embodying junior high school reorganization, an inquiry considering merely changes in the number of *separate* junior units can give only a partial picture of trends in this educational area.

In view of all the evidence, there can be no denying that, as measured by the numbers and proportions both of schools and of pupils, junior high school reorganization has been over a long period—a half-century and more—a most dynamic movement. The magnitude and the significance of this movement will become more apparent as the changes within these schools are reviewed in two subsequent articles. These articles will consider "Purposes of, and Grade-Grouping for, Reorganization" and "The Curriculum and Other Features."

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 12.

[*To be continued*]

DEVELOPING EFFECTIVE HOME ROOMS

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*

THE HOME ROOM in the secondary school (sometimes called the "activity period" or the "advisory") is an abused institution, handicapped not only by shadowy and unrealistic expectations but also, in some schools, by ineffective organization, lack of emphasis, and the poor preparation of students and teachers for participation in home-room activities. At its best, the home room is a group composed of boys and girls and a sponsor, working together for the co-ordination and enrichment of the members' education and school life and for the realization of certain clearly defined purposes.

PURPOSES OF THE HOME ROOM

The purposes as stated in the literature are sound and commendable.[1] Among the most significant purposes are those summarized below:

1. To provide, or to facilitate the provision of, needed guidance and counseling for home-room members
2. To co-ordinate the pupil activity program
3. To provide democratic and co-operative group experiences, leading to the development of effective citizenship
4. To provide a basis and a constituency for student government
5. To co-ordinate, enhance, and clarify the entire learning program of the school
6. To provide individual and personal help and attention for pupils
7. To expedite administrative and clerical work, exploiting routine jobs as opportunities for educative experiences

In some schools there exist organizations masquerading as home rooms —organizations which by their very nature could not possibly fulfil the purposes named above. In other instances, sincere persons working in a carefully organized program fail to achieve the goals of the home room. What are the reasons for the ineffectiveness of some home rooms?

HOME-ROOM INEFFECTIVENESS AND HOW TO OVERCOME IT

Perhaps the five major reasons for ineffectiveness are lack of time, failure to understand the purposes of the home room, indifference of teachers, lack of trained personnel, and inadequate program-planning. These five difficulties will be discussed in turn, and suggestions will be offered for overcoming them.

1. *Lack of time.*—It is difficult for any group of approximately thirty

[1] H. C. McKown, *Homeroom Guidance*. New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., Inc., 1946 (revised).

people to attack problems in such a manner that the purposes mentioned above can be achieved in infrequent or brief periods, particularly when those brief periods are subject to repeated interruptions. It is doubtful whether a period of less than thirty minutes can be regularly used to advantage for prepared programs, for group discussions of problems significant to youth, for experiencing democracy, and for group or individual guidance.

Suggested remedy.—In order to carry on projects conducive to group unity and morale, additional time for co-operative group action is needed. If the purposes of the home room are sufficiently significant to merit a place in the school schedule, then they demand adequate time and effort to provide a reasonable opportunity for success in the endeavor.[2] If the home room can be scheduled for a daily period of thirty or more minutes and if that daily period can be kept reasonably free from interruptions, then pupils and sponsor can learn to know one another and to work together in harmony. They need *time* to work toward the fulfilment of their objectives.

2. *Failure to understand the purposes of the home room.*—Few teacher sponsors and even fewer pupils are aware of the seven purposes listed at the beginning of this article for the home room, or of comparable purposes. Even fewer utilize such objectives as definite bases for purposeful action in the improvement of the home-room program. The home room is looked upon by too many teachers and pupils as a necessary evil in the school day, as a time for dull and unimportant routines, or as a time for rest, relaxation, and recreation. Now, the routine tasks must be performed, and rest and recreation in the middle of the day may be desirable, as they enable school personnel to work better for the remainder of the day. Nevertheless, the home room as a learning and developing group deserves emphasis equivalent to that accorded a regular class.

One reason that teachers and pupils fail to understand home-room objectives may lie in the manner in which the home room was established. In many communities the home room has been inaugurated arbitrarily by the principal or the superintendent without the participation of faculty or students in the decision and without a consensus of support on their part. The purposes were not made clear at the beginning, and busy teachers have not found time to make them clear.

Suggested remedy.—The mere reading or study of a list of objectives is insufficient. Teachers and pupils must participate in formulating the objectives of the home room and in organizing the program in such a way as to realize those objectives. If the purposes of the home room are not clear to teachers and pupils, it is not too late for them to work together, in co-operation with the principal and superintendent, in clarifying the pur-

[2] G. M. Van Pool, "Homeroom," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (February, 1952), 150–56.

poses of the home room in their own schools.

3. *Indifference of teachers to the home room.*—The lack of teacher enthusiasm for the home room arises naturally out of the lack of time, failure to understand the home room, and the fact that at its inception the home room was usually added to the already heavy teacher load without corresponding compensation in any form. When a school group contemplates the inauguration of a home room in a secondary school, as many persons as possible, with representatives from each group concerned, should participate in the decision to institute the home room in that school.

Suggested remedies.—If it is at all possible, compensation for the extra load afforded by the home room should be provided. Although the writer does not know of any school system where home-room teachers receive a special increment because of their sponsorship of home rooms, such duty provides a reasonable basis for salary increases. The salary increment can serve the double purpose of providing more just remuneration for teachers and of giving an effective incentive for more assiduous efforts toward effective home rooms.

In several Texas high schools, arrangements are made periodically to lighten the teaching loads of home-room sponsors. In one large high school, two extra teachers were employed, thus providing for the teaching of ten classes and releasing ten home-room sponsors for an extra conference period daily. Each sponsor taught four classes and a home room instead of the customary load of five classes and a home room. It is possible to rotate such a release from teaching responsibility so that each regular home-room sponsor can have an extra conference hour or free period every three or four semesters. A teacher for whom this is done feels that his efforts as a home-room sponsor are recognized as worth while; he may therefore develop a more wholesome attitude toward the home room.

The most fruitful route for overcoming the indifference of teachers to the home room lies in convincing them of the merit of the home-room plan.[3] Those sponsors who have developed effective home-room groups and who have realized the values to pupils are willing to continue to work toward those recognized ends. Those who have not achieved success with the home room might profit from visiting effective home rooms and from conferring with enthusiastic home-room sponsors. As a minimum, time should be taken and intelligent effort expended for careful consideration of the potentialities of the home room.

4. *Lack of trained personnel.*—Even if the sponsor and pupils are willing to work diligently on home-room programs and if they begin the year with zeal and enthusiasm, their efforts are doomed to mediocrity if they are not properly prepared for their duties.

[3] W. Scott Smith, "A Plea for the Home-room," *School Activities*, XVII (September, 1945), 3–4.

Much of the responsibility for the teachers' lack of preparation and of understanding falls on the colleges which prepare teachers.

Suggested remedies.—Future teachers should study carefully the purposes and potentialities of the home room; they should learn from successful home-room sponsors the techniques that brought success and the problems confronting sponsors; and, as student teachers, they should assist a home-room sponsor for a semester. Few colleges now provide such learning experiences.

Superintendents and principals who find teachers unprepared for their responsibilities as home-room sponsors need to provide opportunities for them to work co-operatively to develop the competence and understanding necessary for effective sponsorship. A significant approach to such preparation is in a thorough appraisal of the present home-room system, followed by free planning or adaptation of the organization for the future.

Pupils, too, need orientation and preparation for their responsibilities as home-room members.[4] Usually the initiative in providing such preparation is assumed by the home-room teacher. An innovation is the institution of a school-wide training course in which the home-room presidents and program chairmen receive special instruction. Several Texas high schools have such a course. Topics that can well be included in a leaders' training course include the following:

1. Aims and objectives of the home room
2. Conducting a meeting
3. Organizing and facilitating committee work
4. Parliamentary procedure
5. Relations between home room and student council
6. Preparation of programs
7. "Staging" or presentation of programs
8. The job of the program chairman
9. Individual roles in a group discussion
10. Home-room projects
11. Specific activities of home rooms in other schools
12. Topics and ideas for programs

For some of the sessions of the training course, separate group meetings can be arranged in a large school for all the presidents, all the program chairmen, or the home-room officers of each grade level. Teachers, students, administrators, and laymen can share the responsibilities of instruction. The principal, a counselor, or a competent and enthusiastic home-room sponsor should guide the discussions of aims and objectives, of home-room projects, and of descriptions of activities used in other schools. Perhaps the parliamentarian of the student council could teach all the home-room officers parliamentary procedure. The officers and the sponsor of the student council could lead the discussion of the relation between the home room and the student council. The speech teacher is the natural person to instruct the officers in how to preside and how to "stage" a program. In like manner specialists can be found for most of the other topics.

[4] G. K. Drake, "We Teach Them To Lead," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVI (December, 1951), 477–83.

5. *Inadequate program planning.*—Many sponsors and student program chairmen have difficulty in finding activities and ideas suitable for the home-room program. This seeming dearth of ideas exists in spite of the varied interests of youth and the many learning experiences that they need. Perhaps ideas are lacking because of the absence of constructive thought and effort in that direction. Students are sometimes reluctant to suggest activities for the home room and to express their problems and concerns. They look upon the home-room period as a time to waste, because no credits or marks are awarded for participation in the home room. This lethargy must be overcome on the basis of the proved worth of home-room activities. Teachers and pupils must be awakened to the variety of ideas and materials available for home-room use.

Suggested remedies.—One approach to the preparation of home-room leaders, which was mentioned earlier, places primary emphasis on program materials and ideas. In some cases home-room program chairmen can meet together for orientation concerning selected topics that can be used for programs. Ways of presenting a particular program and ways of developing group co-operation can be studied in such a group. Books, pamphlets, and other materials dealing with problems that concern young people can be examined and evaluated. Although the publication of a local handbook or guide for home rooms is not necessarily advocated, there should be some provision for exchange of ideas and accumulation of program material.

One thing is certain: the success of a home-room program in a given school is contingent upon the wholehearted co-operation of all members of the school community. It is urged that a co-ordinated and representative group from the administration, the faculty, and the student body plan the general organization and outline of the home-room program and that members of individual home rooms should have the final authority for the immediate programs. Good and sufficient reasons for such pupil participation lie in the enlistment of good will and interest in the home-room program. Even better reasons are that pupils are more likely to embody in the programs materials and activities which fulfil their real needs and that participation of this kind by its own action exemplifies democracy.[5]

Activities of the home room should include group and individual guidance, special programs, discussions of problems important to home-room members, recreation, rest, work on service projects, and instruction in matters not covered in the regular courses, in addition to routine clerical and administrative activities.

6. *Other reasons for ineffectiveness of home rooms.*—Inefficient organization

[5] W. D. Payne, "Experiences in Homeroom Administration," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (April, 1946), 120–23.

of home rooms can prevent the realization of the objectives. Scheduling the home room at a bad time of day is disadvantageous. Gruhn and Douglass emphasize the importance of timing in this way, "The work of the home-room period is sufficiently important to assign it the most favorable place in the daily schedule."[6] Failure to provide help and supervision for home-room sponsors also jeopardizes the chances for success.

Frequent interruptions of the home-room period by the making of announcements and by calling pupils out of the room for other activities disrupt the program and indicate that the program is not considered important. In a survey made in 1948, one principal reported that he scheduled home room "on days when no other activities were scheduled."[7] Such a low priority for home-room activities on the part of the faculty relegates them to a similar rank in the minds of pupils.

The lack of balance in the home-room program also tends to diminish its effectiveness. In certain cases there is either too much or not enough emphasis on social activities. In other schools, group discussions are used until their appeal has worn thin.

Another factor in the success or failure of the home room is the attitude of the sponsor toward the pupils.[8] Neither a dominating nor a laissez faire attitude is conducive to co-operative effort in the home room. A truly democratic approach involves co-operative teacher-pupil planning of home-room activities. The sponsor must be permissive and receptive to pupil ideas, and yet he must also be resourceful and willing to use his own initiative.

CONCLUDING COMMENT

In spite of the reasons listed above for the ineffectiveness of some home rooms, potentially the home room is extremely valuable when a group of fair-minded, zealous, and patient pupils and a sponsor with like attributes work together. Ideally, the home room includes a group of boys and girls and a sponsor meeting together regularly and dedicated to the enhancement of each pupil's education and to the effectiveness of his school life. The home room can be the pupil's "base of operations" for the day's work. It can provide the framework and foundation for student government and for the activity program. Home-room activities can be focused on the development and true education of the student members.

[6] W. T. Gruhn and H. R. Douglass, *The Modern Junior High School*, p. 320. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1947.

[7] John W. McFarland, "A Study of the Home Room in Two-Hundred Fifteen Texas High Schools." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1948.

[8] Ruth Fedder, *Guiding Homeroom and Club Activities*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1949.

EVALUATING THE CORE CURRICULUM: A FURTHER LOOK

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OBJECTIVE EVALUATIONS of core-curriculum programs are still very much needed to provide evidences that the goals claimed for these programs are achieved. A search made by the writers of this article reveals that few evidences of this achievement have been reported in objective studies.

Kelley and Beatty[1] reported that the basic skills can be adequately taught, and the gain in learning measured, in a core program. However, their study was concerned with a core curriculum in a junior high school enrolling Grades VII–IX. Wright[2] summarized reports of objective evaluation and pointed out that only two controlled experiments to determine the effectiveness of the core curriculum had been conducted: one, at the Midwood High School, New York City, was reported by Wrightstone and Forlano;[3] the other, at the Oak Ridge, Tennessee, high school, was reported by the present writers.[4] In both these experiments greater gains were reported for the experimental core groups than for the traditional non-core groups.

In her survey Wright concludes:

> Programs of evaluation of the core curriculum are needed to provide evidence that the claimed outcomes are realized. Many of these outcomes concern intangibles difficult to evaluate. When educators can point to improved social attitudes, better civic behavior, equal or improved competence in basic skills, plus information or knowledge of the type needed by everyone, a wide acceptance of the core curriculum will be assured.[5]

THE CORE PROGRAM AT OAK RIDGE

The core program at the Oak Ridge High School is optional at the tenth-

[1] Arthur C. Kelley and Robert E. Beatty, "Here's Proof that Core Program Students Learn Basic Skills," *School Executive*, LXXII (February, 1953), 54–55.

[2] Grace S. Wright, *Core Curriculum Development—Problems and Practices*. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education Bulletin 1952, No. 5.

[3] J. Wayne Wrightstone and George Forlano, "Evaluation of the Experience Curriculum at Midwood High School," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXX (December, 1948), 35–42.

[4] Bertis E. Capehart, Allen Hodges, and Norman Berdan, "An Objective Evaluation of a Core Program," *School Review*, LX (February, 1952), 84–89.

[5] Grace S. Wright, *op. cit.*, p. 100.

grade level.[6] A student who elects to take "Core" receives academic credit in world history and in English II. A student who does not elect to take the core program enrols in an English II class; he has no opportunity to enrol in a separate world history class, since the demand does not justify the inclusion of world history in the program of studies.

The core organization allows for a larger block of time (two hours a day, five days a week) and is designed to afford greater opportunity for student-teacher planning, more effective guidance, and greater flexibility in organization and procedure. The larger block of time in the core program is believed to provide a greater opportunity for students to acquire skills and knowledge, to develop the faculty of critical thinking, to acquire more effective work habits and study skills, to improve their personal and social adjustment, to broaden their interests in community affairs, and to develop social attitudes and a sense of social responsibility.[7]

DESIGN OF THE EXPERIMENT

From a list of goals formulated for the core curriculum, two were selected as fundamental. These goals, which lend themselves to rather objective measurement, are (1) acquisition of skills and knowledge and (2) development of critical thinking.

It will be readily agreed that the first goal is also a stated purpose of any English II class. The instructional guide of the English II course at the Oak Ridge High School lists, among others, the following purposes:

1. To help students cultivate the habit of listening critically
2. To teach students to participate intelligently and politely in oral discussion
3. To develop students' creative talent
4. To teach students to use the library effectively
5. To encourage students to form the habits of accuracy, conciseness, and neatness

Since these are related to the development of critical thinking, it appears that the purposes of the English II class at the Oak Ridge High School do not differ radically from the goals of the core class.

EVALUATION

In the Oak Ridge schools, evaluation of student gains from core programs is not limited to written examinations and objective tests. In reality, many different kinds of evidence on student behavior are collected. Records of student activities, interviews and conferences, check lists, questionnaires, anecdotal records, sociograms, student-devised instruments, records of students' work, and a variety of other instruments and devices are used, because valid judgments cannot be made on standardized-test data alone. However, objective data of the kind presented in this study do have

[6] For a more complete description of the core program at other grade levels see Bertis E. Capehart, Allen Hodges, and Norman Berdan, *op. cit.*

[7] Oak Ridge Schools' Staff, "Curriculum Improvement Report," May, 1952. Pp. 455 (mimeographed).

value in helping us become better informed about academic achievement in core classes.

After an earlier attempt to evaluate objectively the core program, it was recommended that achievement, as set up from a list of goals formulated for the core at the tenth-grade level, should be measured in control (non-core) and in experimental (core) groups. From the standpoint of time, money, and effort expended in very elaborate testing programs, the decision was reached to select only the two goals mentioned previously for evaluation by standardized tests. The tests selected for use were the Cooperative English Tests and the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal.

The data reported in this study were obtained during the twelve-month period from May, 1951, to May, 1952. Students enrolled in the core program were matched individually with students enrolled in the regular curriculum as of May, 1951, on the basis of pretest performance. The following variables were controlled: (1) teacher differences, (2) sex of subjects, (3) chronological age, (4) intellectual ability, (5) total English ability, as measured by the Cooperative English Tests, and (6) critical-thinking ability, as measured by the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal.

The first variable, teacher differences, was controlled by the fact that for the 1951–52 academic year teachers who taught the core program at the tenth-grade level were also required to teach classes in English II. This fact enabled matched pairs of students to be selected since both the experimental subject and the control subject were taught by the same teacher. Differences in student achievement which might occur as a result of different teachers' personalities, skills, and effective teaching techniques were therefore eliminated by having the teacher acting as a "control" on himself.

There may be some doubt that having the same teacher for both the control and the experimental groups adequately controls the teacher situation. If the teacher is aware of the experiment and if he favors the core program, it may be argued that he will teach the core class with more enthusiasm than he brings to the non-core group. However, the teachers in this study were not aware that an experiment was being conducted.

The remaining five variables were controlled by the matching procedure. In order to determine whether the core group and the non-core group could be considered equivalent in initial ability, a comparison was made between groups, the results being shown in Table 1.

From the data in Table 1 the conclusion may be drawn that in May, 1951, when the pretests were administered, no statistically significant differences existed between the core and the non-core groups with respect to chronological age, intelligence quotient, or total score on the Cooperative English Tests or on the Watson-

Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal. The core and the non-core groups differed slightly in initial ability as measured by the subtests of the English test, with the differences favoring the non-core group.

After an interval of twelve months, the post-tests were administered. No clearly significant differences were found to occur between the two groups. On the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal, the gain exhibited by the core group differs from the gain of the non-core group at the 8 per cent level of confidence, which may be considered "probably significant."

Table 2 contains the subtest scores of the Cooperative English Tests, comparing the mean gains exhibited by each group. Differences in initial measured ability occurred between the two groups on the subtests of the Cooperative English Test on the pretest (May, 1951). On the post-test (May, 1952), the core group achieved more measured gain in all three areas as compared with the non-core group. The mean gains observed were tested for significance by means of Fisher's t and were found to be of no statistical significance.

TABLE 1

MEAN CHRONOLOGICAL AGE, INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT, AND TOTAL TEST SCORES OF TWENTY-FOUR MATCHED PAIRS OF STUDENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

	Experimental (Core) Group	Control (Non-core) Group	Difference	Standard Error of Mean Difference	t*	Probability
Chronological age (May, 1951)	15.04	15.04	.....	.....	.....	P>.9
Intelligence quotient (Primary Mental Abilities Test), May, 1951	108.00	108.71	0.71	0.92	0.81	P>.5
Cooperative English Tests:						
Form Rx, May, 1951	40.62	42.04	1.42	1.40	1.01	P>.3
Form S, May, 1952	45.88	46.67	.79	1.61	.49	P>.6
Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal:						
Form Am, May, 1951	61.04	60.58	.46	1.16	.39	P>.7
Form Bm, May, 1952	65.79	62.42	3.37	1.67	2.02	P>.08†

* Quinn McNemar, *Psychological Statistics*, pp. 73–75. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949.
† Probably significant.

INTERPRETATION OF TEST RESULTS

The results suggest that, with regard to growth in English skills, the core curriculum is equivalent to the more formalized method in producing the desired learning. Claims for the superiority of one method over the other in the teaching of English skills are not verified by this study. Critical-thinking ability, however, appears to be stimulated to a greater degree with-

in the core curriculum. While this conclusion is not clearly significant statistically, results obtained suggest that this difference might be labeled "probably significant."

As in the previous study reporting an evaluation of a core program, the differences in learning which occur as a result of these two methods are unanimously in favor of the core program. If a larger number of subjects could have been obtained, it is felt that the differences noted would have shown statistical significance in favor of the core approach. Also, all the students in the study had participated in a core situation in Grades VII–IX. Therefore, if, in fact, core classes develop critical thinking, all these students—those in the experimental and in the control groups—should have this ability as the result of their three years' experience with the core curriculum in junior high school. This rules out the possibility of a large gain by the core group in this study in comparison with the gain of the non-core group.

On the basis of the findings, the following hypothesis is made:

> The major advantage of the core over the non-core approach is that the core program appears to further develop critical-thinking ability. Subjectively, the motivation of the student appears as the basis on which this advantage occurs.

TABLE 2

MEAN SCORES AND MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES EARNED BY TWENTY-FOUR MATCHED PAIRS OF STUDENTS ON INITIAL TESTS (MAY, 1951) AND FINAL TESTS (MAY, 1952) IN DIFFERENT AREAS OF ENGLISH SKILLS

Subtest of Cooperative English Tests	Core Group			Non-core Group			Difference in Mean Gain of Core over Non-core
	May, 1951, Score	May, 1952, Score	Difference	May, 1951, Score	May, 1952, Score	Difference	
Mechanics of expression	40.13	45.13	5.00	42.00	46.13	4.13	0.87
Effectiveness of expression	41.00	48.50	7.50	42.58	47.83	5.25	2.25
Reading comprehension	43.58	48.25	4.67	42.96	46.29	3.33	1.34

SEX DIFFERENCES IN CORE LEARNING

Under the rigorous matching procedure applied to the previous portion of the study, a number of core subjects of both sexes had been excluded. In order to test the possibility that sex of a student is a basic factor in the reputed gains obtained by the core group as compared to the non-core group, all students who were enrolled in the core program were divided according to sex. At the beginning of the

exposure to the core program, chronological age, measured intellectual ability, measured English skills, and measured critical-thinking ability of the boys and girls were equivalent, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3 also contains the post-test data, obtained in May, 1952, after a complete year's study in the core classroom. On the basis of the findings, sex of subjects does not appear to affect achievement within the core-type curriculum. Some speculations have been made by the writers that the core program, with its greater flexibility, its subject matter more "central" to pupils' interests, and its emphasis on individual research (a form of independence), might appeal more to adolescent boys than to girls of the same chronological age. This "hunch" does not appear to be justified on the basis of the comparisons made.

TABLE 3

MEAN SCORES AND MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES EARNED ON INITIAL TESTS (MAY, 1951) AND ON FINAL TESTS (MAY, 1952) BY THIRTY GIRLS AND THIRTY-EIGHT BOYS IN CORE PROGRAMS

	Girls	Boys	Difference	t*	Probability
Chronological age (May, 1951)	15.35	15.45	0.10	0.02	$P<.9$
Intelligence quotient (Primary Mental Abilities Test), May, 1951	99.00	99.58	.42	.04	$P<.9$
Cooperative English Tests:					
Form Rx, May, 1951	36.60	36.57	.03	.01	$P<.9$
Form S, May, 1952	40.60	42.26	1.66	.53	$P>.6$
Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal:					
Form Am, May, 1951	57.83	60.89	3.06	1.20	$P<.2$
Form Bm, May, 1952	58.00	62.42	4.42	1.30	$P>.1$

* Fisher's t. Palmer Oliver Johnson, *Statistical Methods in Research*, p. 72. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Utilizing the matched-pairs technique and controlling such variables as sex, chronological age, intellectual development, initial English ability, and initial critical-thinking ability, twenty-four pairs of high-school students were selected as subjects of this study. Within each pair, one student was enrolled in the core curriculum while the other student was enrolled in the regular subject curriculum of English.

All the students enrolled in the core program were, in another part of the study, divided according to sex. As of May, 1951, when the pretest battery was given, no significant differences were found between the matched groups or between the groups of boys and girls as to total measured English ability and measured critical-thinking ability.

After an interval of twelve months,

the groups were given the post-test battery. The following results were obtained:

1. Students enrolled in the core curriculum made "probably significantly" greater gains in the area of critical thinking than did students not participating in the core curriculum. The mean difference of 3.37 points in gain on the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal is significant at the 8 per cent level of confidence.

2. Students enrolled in the English II classes did not make significant gains over the core group of students in English skills. In fact, the mean gain differences on pretest and posttest scores showed that the core students gained at a greater rate than did the students in the English classes.

3. The gains of the students in the core group on each of the three subtests of the Cooperative English Tests are consistently higher than the gains for the non-core group. It was noted that particular gains were made by the core group on that part of the Cooperative English Tests concerned with "effectiveness of expression," a fact which substantiates the findings of the previous study.[8]

4. The sex of the students does not appear to influence achievement in the core curriculum.

IMPLICATIONS

There is some implication from the results of this study and the previously reported Oak Ridge study that students in a core program learn basic skills with equal or improved competence. This study also suggests that our traditional teaching methods do not lead to much improvement in skills of critical inquiry, such as interpretation of data, evaluation of arguments, deduction, and recognition of assumptions or inferences as measured by the Watson-Glaser tests. On the other hand, the study does give factual evidence that the core approach to teaching is effective in teaching pupils how to think.

More research of this type in many different school systems concerned with evaluation of these many intangible learnings is vitally needed if advances are to be made in teaching methods and curriculum revision.

[8] Bertis E. Capehart, Allen Hodges, and Norman Berdan, *op. cit.*

TEACHING SCIENTIFIC METHOD IN A UNIT ON BACTERIAL DISEASE

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MUCH has been written about the need to develop in children an understanding of the scientific method and an ability to reason scientifically, but little has been written about the methods for doing so. Deliberate training in reasoning and in original thought is of inestimable value both to the student himself and to society. The student will find that his later success may depend to a large extent upon his ability to solve the problems which will confront him in his daily life and occupation, and society reaps the benefits, directly or indirectly, of the ability of its members to think clearly and to distinguish truth from error.

Teachers of natural science realize that their subject is essentially one which makes use of reason. Scientific knowledge inspires confidence because it has been established by the most painstaking investigations, by the most careful observations and experiments, and by critical reasoning, with every conclusion or theory subjected to the most rigid tests. Yet, although the sciences should be the least dogmatic of all subjects in the elementary and high schools, the teaching of science is often fully as dogmatic as that of other subjects. The child is given the conclusions of science ready-made and is offered little or no evidence. He is told that the earth, which appears to be still, is moving around the sun; that things are composed of atoms; that atoms contain electrons, protons, and neutrons; that oxygen is used in breathing; that North America was once covered by glaciers; that heating a material speeds its molecules; that diseases are caused by bacteria; that radio programs are sent by waves; that chalk was formed from animal shells in the sea. No attempt is made to appeal to the child's developing reason, to make the statements consistent with experience, or to indicate how such things were ever found out. To the child, science is mystery, and its ways are beyond comprehension. "Research" means looking in other books. An "experiment" is a step-by-step imitation of an activity described in a textbook, not an invented course of action for discovering the unknown.

Perhaps this is so because the conclusions of science have largely been irrefutably established, and for lay-

men or students to express opinions about them, even about questions still unsettled, is regarded as foolhardy. Perhaps it is so, too, because methods of teaching which do full justice to the true spirit of science have not been developed.

In an effort to develop the scientific method of teaching, units like the one on bacterial diseases described herein have been used during the past two years in senior high school classes in biology at Central High School, Newark, New Jersey.

The conventional presentation of the subject of bacterial diseases, such as is usually found in biology textbooks, describes bacteria and tells the child that bacteria cause various diseases, that bacteria produce certain poisons or toxins, and that body defenses against disease include antitoxins and other antibodies. This is all material for memorization; it does not achieve the desired objective of developing the scientific method of reasoning to estimate the validity of the scientific evidence and to detect flaws in it.

Since the major goal of teaching these units is to instil in students a functional understanding of the scientific method, the teaching procedure explains not only what scientists have discovered but also how they discovered it. It discloses the methods of reasoning and of procedure which have actually been used in discerning truth, and it traces the development of scientific knowledge and presents the evidence for it. No statement is made without indicating to the student the evidence upon which it is based. This presentation requires the students to criticize and compare scientific theories.

The unit offered here is intended as but a sample; the writer has developed similar methods of instruction for use with other science topics in other grades. For the sake of brevity, only the middle portion of this sample unit is reported at length; the earlier and later portions are briefly summarized. The unit, which is one of eight included in the course, requires nineteen days of teaching.

In these units the research histories are presented orally by the teacher. As far as the writer knows, they do not now exist in any readily available and convenient printed form. The historical studies in science upon which these units are based were begun as early as 1935. They embrace not only biology but all sciences.

THE FIRST SEVEN DAYS' WORK IN THE UNIT

In the first seven days of the unit, the information suggested by the following outline was covered:

A. Story of first discovery of bacteria and proof that bacteria are living
   1. Pasteur's theory that fermentation is caused by yeast, that souring is caused by bacteria
      a) Alternative theories of Stahl, van Helmont, Fabbroni
      b) Corroborating research of Lavoisier, Thénard, de Latour, Schwann
      c) Opposition of Berzelius, Wöhler, and von Liebig

d) Did Pasteur really prove his theory?

2. Pasteur's study of silkworm diseases
   a) His collection of facts
   b) Invention of his theory
   c) His mistake
3. Koch's studies
   a) Discovery of anthrax spores
   b) Invention of effective techniques of bacteria culture on solid media
   c) Discovery of tubercle bacillus
   d) His postulates
4. Pasteur's discovery of methods of immunizing:
   a) Chickens against chicken cholera
   b) Sheep against anthrax
5. Development by Pasteur, with Roux, of cure for hydrophobia
6. Jenner's discovery of vaccination against smallpox

The further work of the unit is now described in detail.

THE WORK OF THE EIGHTH DAY

On the eighth day the class saw on the blackboard the following statements:

1. Bacteria eat tissue (Koch).
2. Bacteria eat a tissue substance (Pasteur).
3. Bacteria excrete substances poisonous to themselves (Chauvreau).
4. Bacteria excrete substances poisonous to tissues (Löffler).
5. Blood contains an antiseptic (Buchner).

The following is a summary of remarks made by the teacher at that time.

We have learned how Pasteur, Koch, and others proved that bacteria cause disease. We will now seek to answer the questions, "What do bacteria do that causes disease and death?" "How can a tiny speck kill an organism like a person, which is a billion times larger than itself?" On the board are five theories. You will analyze and criticize each of them in your minds, and tomorrow you will criticize each of them in class. I shall explain each theory in detail.

First, what is a theory? How does it differ from a fact? [Develops the answer that facts are sense data, theories are guessed-at explanations.]

Now, when is a theory a good theory? [Develops the answer that a theory is good when it explains all the known relevant facts, is not contradicted by any of the facts, can be tested experimentally.]

I will now explain the theories.

Theory I.—Koch discovered the tubercle bacillus. He knew the fact, discovered by Morgagni, that in tuberculosis the lung tissue is altered by the formation of tubercles. The function of breathing must therefore be interfered with. He theorized, therefore, that bacteria must produce death by consuming vital body tissue. The names "tuberculosis consumption," "consumption," and "consumptive" attest to belief in the theory that bacteria consume the living body just as they use for food and decompose a piece of meat left exposed on a dish. A person recovers if his body is in good general health and can repair the tissue faster than the germs consume it; if not, he dies.

Theory II.—Pasteur felt that bacteria consume some substances necessary to their sustenance, of which the body has but a limited quantity. When this substance is exhausted, the bacteria die, being thereby starved, and the patient recovers. If this substance remains lacking, the person is immune, for new bacteria entering the body will not find in it the substance they need for their food.

Theory III.—Fermentation of wine stops when the alcohol reaches a concentration of 15 per cent. Wines with more alcohol have to be "fortified." Evidently, the yeast cannot live or be active in its own excretions. Alcohol inhibits the life and activity of microorganisms. So in the body. Bacteria give off excretions, which, in sufficient concentrations, are poisonous to themselves. The bac-

teria die, and the patient recovers. As long as these excretions are retained, the person is immune, since new bacteria of the same kind cannot live in him.

Theory IV.—Bacteria give off excretions which are poisonous, not to themselves, but to the tissues of the body. These poisons must be picked up and distributed throughout the body by the blood. Certain vital organs are poisoned by these substances, and they consequently cannot function normally. Thus are produced sickness and death.

Theory V.—It was shown by many that blood is bactericidal (experiments on rabbits, the work of Fodor, of Nuttall, and of Buchner). Buchner theorized that the blood must contain an antiseptic which he proposed to call "alexin." This antiseptic is produced upon invasion of the body by germs; if produced faster than the germs grow, the patient recovers; if not, he dies. The retention of alexin by the body renders it immune.

I will now answer any questions about the theories, the standards for your criticisms of them, or your assignment. Be sure you have the five theories copied in your notebooks.

THE WORK OF THE NINTH DAY

Paper was distributed, and the students were asked to answer the following questions:

1. Criticize each of the five theories according to the rules developed yesterday.
2. Does it really make any difference which, if any, is true? Will people not suffer disease and death, will not certain remedies and cures be effective, whatever the explanation is? Is not everyone entitled to his own opinion?

A written rather than an oral criticism was requested because many students are content merely to sit and listen or to amuse themselves and, even when asked their opinion, decline to answer; and also because the teacher wanted a permanent record of the students' reasonings. The criticism was not given as a homework assignment because it was desired that the answers be individually reasoned, rather than the joint result of many minds or the copied answers of the brighter students, and because many students in unfavorable economic circumstances who work after school consistently fail to submit homework or else submit homework hastily done and of poor quality.

While the students wrote, the teacher went through the classroom examining the work being done by each student and discussing with him anything on the paper which was not perfectly clear.

The papers submitted showed that 58.3 per cent of the students were unable to think of any criticism for any theory. Another 31.4 per cent could think of but one criticism which could be considered logical and valid. Only 10.3 per cent of the replies mentioned two or more strengths or defects of any of the theories. However, on the following day, when the students' and teacher's criticisms were assembled on the blackboard, a number (not counted) of students who had not been able to think of anything to write "got the idea," and expressed criticisms orally. The writer concludes that nothing in the students' earlier education ever taught them to think in this way; that they were not "used to it" but could learn; and that encouragement of scientific thinking should begin much earlier, as early as the primary grades.

Sixty-one per cent of the pupils felt that, if the correct theory of disease were known, it should help in cure and prevention; 36 per cent maintained that it makes no difference; 3 per cent failed to answer the second question.

THE WORK OF THE TENTH DAY

On the tenth day the students' and teacher's criticisms of the theories were assembled on the blackboard as follows:

A. Theory I
1. It explains disease and death.
2. It does not explain:
   a) Why only some, not all, bacteria cause disease. Shouldn't any bacteria that can decompose meat also be able to decompose living tissue?
   b) Why death can result from infection of a nonvital organ, such as infection of the hand through a cut, or appendicitis. Even in tuberculosis, the disease on which Koch based his case, a person may die if only one lung is involved; yet a person can live with one lung completely removed.
   c) The theory purports to explain recovery, but it really does not. On this theory, the germs would still be alive in a recovered person; there is nothing that gets rid of them. The production of new tissue would only feed them better, until bacteria possessed the entire body.
   d) Tissue destruction should be visible in certain organs, such as the hand. On this theory the hand should be consumed, skeletonized, the consumption should travel up the arm, while the patient still lived; and death should not result until the bacteria ate their way to some vital organ, such as the heart or lungs.
   e) It does not explain that curious phenomenon, immunity.

B. Theory II
1. It explains recovery and immunity.
2. It does not explain:
   a) Why the substance is in the body in the first place. Does the body contain it only to feed germs for a while? Or is the substance necessary to proper body function? Is an immune person permanently impaired in some way?
   b) The specific nature of disease and immunity: a person immune to smallpox, for example, is not thereby immune to typhoid fever. On this theory, the body should contain at birth as many such different bacteria-feeding substances as there are human diseases.
   c) The most important fact of all: death. The theory gives no indication of why a person even becomes sick.

C. Theory III
1. It explains:
   a) Recovery.
   b) Specific nature of immunity.
2. It does not explain disease and death.

D. Theory IV
1. It explains:
   a) Disease and death.
   b) Death due to infection of a nonvital organ.
   c) Specific nature of disease. (Different diseases affect different organs of the body.)
2. It does not explain recovery and immunity.

E. Theory V
1. It explains recovery and immunity.
2. It does not explain:
   a) Disease and death.
   b) The specific nature of disease. There cannot be only one alexin, but there must be a different alexin for each disease.

The students then attempted to secure a good theory out of various combinations. They agreed that, by adding together Theories I and II, they would add not only their respective advantages but their weaknesses also and that many things would still be explained imperfectly or not at all. They agreed that Theories III and IV could not be combined, for the truth of one would deny the other; one could be true and the other false, or both could be false, but both could not be true. For if the substance supposed by each theory is the same substance, an immune person would have to carry within him a poisonous substance capable of sickening and killing him.

The students concluded that none of the theories is satisfactory and that the exact action of bacteria in the body is doubtful. Some students suggested observations and experiments which might be used in testing various theories.

THE WORK OF THE ELEVENTH DAY

The following remarks summarize what was said by the teacher on the eleventh day.

Today's lesson considers diphtheria. At one time the disease was deadly, with a high mortality among children. Bacteria shaped like tenpins were discovered by Klebs in the throats of children with diphtheria.

Löffler developed a stain for these germs. (Where before have we heard of Löffler?) He was puzzled by finding these germs in throats of healthy children. We now know that these children must have been immune. He proved, by Koch's methods, that the germs do cause diphtheria [proof was given]. He attempted to find them in the body. In children, they are nowhere except in the throat; in experimental animals, nowhere except at the point of injection. Yet they produce paralysis in the legs. Why? How can they paralyze the legs without being there? Where an effect is, must not the cause be present also?

The students suggested that this must have been the reason why Löffler theorized that bacteria excrete a poison absorbed and carried by the blood.

Löffler named the theoretical poison "toxin." He could think of no way to find the poison or to prove his theory.

Yersin and Roux, to test Löffler's theory, sought to filter the tenpin germs away from the broth in which they grew, with the idea that, if the germs excrete a poison, it becomes part of the broth and the broth alone should then produce the disease without the germs. Filtration was difficult, and they finally invented a filter consisting of an unglazed porcelain cup and means for exerting pressure, with compressed air, upon a liquid confined within it.

Yersin and Roux tested the filtered liquid on solid media to assure themselves that it was sterile. They then administered it to animals [test was given]. At first they met with failure. [Early failures and the reasons were described.] Then they succeeded. [Their final success was described.] The broth, without the germs, caused death with all the symptoms of diphtheria. Löffler was right!

THE WORK OF THE TWELFTH DAY

On the twelfth day the teacher made the following remarks:

A method of producing immunity to diphtheria was developed by von Behring. He also invented a theory to explain immunity. He conceived an antitoxin theory, which he proved experimentally. [Theory and proof were explained.]

Roux conceived the idea of producing antitoxin in horses. [His methods for developing techniques for doing this, the difficulties he encountered and how he overcame them were described.] He ended an epidemic of diphtheria. Hundreds of thousands of children's lives have been saved by this research. [The effectiveness of the antitoxin in horse serum; modern production of antitoxin; the toxin-antitoxin immunization treatment; the Schick test; present extent of immunity; and present incidence of diphtheria were all described and discussed.]

THE WORK OF THE THIRTEENTH DAY

On the thirteenth day a written test on diphtheria research took up half the period. After the papers were collected, the outcomes of learnings thus far were discussed.

The following is a summary of the teacher's remarks:

You were once asked whether it made any difference which of the five theories is true. What do you think now?

The class voiced the opinion that it certainly makes a great deal of difference, for with the truth you can do things, while without it, you can do nothing. The class seemed to have a greater respect for the value of truth in scientific speculation.

Truth has not always been so regarded. In the Middle Ages, the voice of authority prevailed. You learned when we studied human anatomy that the writings of Galen were supreme and unchallenged for twelve centuries, until Vesalius ventured to dissect the human corpse and to expose the errors of Galen. As in this, so in other fields. Throughout the whole history of science, there have been many cases in which the first explanation to be proposed has been adopted universally and has misled subsequent scientists for generations. There have been many different theories of the atom, and if the earliest theories had been accepted without question, we would not today have atomic energy.

Do you understand better how scientists work?

The students contributed their impressions of the ways by which facts are learned; of how theories are suggested to the mind; of how a theory is to be appraised; of how a means of testing a theory may be invented; of what justifies conclusions; of how practical applications of knowledge may be envisioned.

Do you see any advantage in the presentation I have used, of going back into the history of the subject, and of seeking evidence, over the direct presentation such as that of the textbook?

Would you be interested in bacteriology as a career?

The students replied that they preferred the method here used; that they understood toxins and antitoxins better; that they would like to learn to match their wits with those of great scientists; and that anyone contemplating research in bacteriology as a lifework would be greatly helped by knowing the procedures that were successful in the past. The students asked about the amount of study involved for a career in bacteriology and the pay. One stated that the satisfaction of contributing to the preservation of human life would be worth more than pay.

THE WORK OF THE LAST SIX DAYS

The unit was concluded by presentation of how the body gets rid of bac-

teria as it recovers, of the researches and discoveries of Metchnikoff, contradictory theories, Pfeiffer and the discovery of bacteriolysis, discovery of agglutination by Widal, Charrin, and Roger, Kraus and precipitation, uses of the precipitation reaction, filterable viruses and virus diseases. This material required six days to present.

LABORATORY WORK

At present, laboratory work is limited to the ordinary high-school biology work, such as yeast fermentation, agar cultures, and microscopic observations of bacteria. There are also bacteriological studies of the chlorination of water and the testing of chlorine residuals. What is planned for the future is original investigation by the students, for which they do not know answers in advance, such as (in this unit): "What causes diseases in fruit, for example, rotten apples?" The students will pattern their researches after those of Pasteur, Koch, and others who investigated diseases of human beings, but in their investigations of diseases of fruits they will devise their own theories and procedures and find out whether bacteria are involved, how such diseases are acquired, whether these diseases are contagious among apples, whether the bacteria penetrate the unbroken skin, and similar facts and hypotheses.

CONCLUDING COMMENT

A new unit method of teaching science, which attempts to impart to students a functional understanding of the scientific method, has been described.

It is true that teaching of this type, involving presentation of actual research methods by which the data of science were learned and evaluation of the evidence upon which scientific knowledge rests, requires more time than a simple statement that "bacteria produce toxins and the body produces antitoxins to counteract them." But, since the teaching is aimed not only at the giving of information but also at training in scientific thinking, the additional time required for its accomplishment is justified.

That the method is successful is evidenced by the changes in the students' attitudes: the realization that knowledge of scientific truth enables man to make practical applications of knowledge (in this case, it has enabled him to make progress in his constant fight against disease); that discovery of the truth is achieved by a regular method of thinking; and that this method requires painstaking observation and experiment for the collection of relevant facts, and the subjection of theories to crucial tests which demonstrate their truth or falsity.

THE BAVARIAN TEACHER-TRAINING PROGRAM

GEORGE A. C. SCHERER
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A BRIEF DESCRIPTION of the current training program for secondary-school teachers in another land, namely, the South German State of Bavaria, is offered in this paper. During the spring and early summer of 1952, I had the opportunity to examine the Bavarian plan at first hand, particularly in the regions of Munich and Nuremberg, and to study the state regulations governing teacher training. Although I was specifically interested in the program for the modern foreign languages in Germany, the discussion to follow applies in virtually all respects to practice teachers destined for any teaching area in the German secondary school.

BACKGROUND OF TEACHER-TRAINING CANDIDATES

The candidate for teacher training in Bavaria has behind him many years of specialized study. In the foreign languages, at least, the candidate is in full command of his subject. He is fluent usually in two languages that are foreign to him, which are for the most part French and English. The only miracle operating in bringing about the student's fluency is time: six to nine years of foreign-language study before entering the university and at least four additional years of study in the university. Add to this a couple of trips to France and England and one has a linguist.

It should be said at the outset that many of the candidates for teacher training have already completed the doctoral program in one or more subject fields at a university. Actually, the state of Bavaria requires only that eight semesters of university study shall have been completed at the time of application for teacher training. However, any person desiring to learn to teach is required to pass a thorough Bavarian state examination in his subject areas before he can be considered for candidacy. No more than two years may have elapsed between the passing of this examination and admission to the teacher-training program.

THE MEDICAL CERTIFICATE

Among the other requirements for admission there is one of special interest: the medical certificate. The candidate must present a physician's testimonial of recent date stating that he is physically and mentally fit for the teaching profession. Special atten-

teria as it recovers, of the researches and discoveries of Metchnikoff, contradictory theories, Pfeiffer and the discovery of bacteriolysis, discovery of agglutination by Widal, Charrin, and Roger, Kraus and precipitation, uses of the precipitation reaction, filterable viruses and virus diseases. This material required six days to present.

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tion is given to sight and hearing and to tendencies toward chronic illnesses. Chest X rays for pulmonary diseases are also required.

The timing of the medical examination is especially fortunate. Known medical misfits can be refused entrance to the expensive teacher-training program. I point this out because this educational problem is currently much discussed in the United States. Nonetheless, many German educators are still worried about the fact that some physically or mentally unfit manage to get into the teaching profession. School administrators in Germany are working on the problem, but they feel that a completely satisfactory solution will be difficult to achieve.

THE PEDAGOGICAL SEMINAR

German universities do not offer programs in education. Here and there a professor may offer a course that applies, but for the most part the universities consider teacher training to be none of their business. Instead, the ministries of education of the several states designate certain secondary schools within each state at which the teacher-training program is to be carried out. These secondary schools either are located within cities having a state university or are in the vicinity of a university town. The programs are referred to as "pedagogical seminars." All applications are made with the state ministry of education, and this body makes all decisions regarding candidacy. Once accepted, the candidate is expected to devote full time to his training for the period of one full school year.

Needy students have the opportunity to apply for a subsidy. The amount granted varies in accordance with the need of the student, but it is never large. State subsidies for trainees in secondary-school teaching are unknown in the United States. At best, we can compare this German practice only with the scattered aid sometimes rendered by local parent-teachers' associations when there is a dire need for teachers.

It is made quite clear that, if the seminar director considers a candidate to be unsuited for the teaching profession, he may dismiss him. The reasons for dismissal are available to the candidate at the ministry of education. This, of course, implies a review of the candidate's case by the higher authority. Questionable conduct or inadequate performance are the usual reasons for dismissal.

The principal of the school designated for teacher training is automatically the director of the pedagogical seminar. However, with the approval of the ministry, he may assign his duties, in part or *in toto*, to a qualified representative. The candidates for teacher training are grouped according to their subject interests, and individual seminars are set up. An experienced teacher on the permanent staff of the school is then assigned the seminar work in a specific subject field as a part of his teaching duties. The reduction in regular load varies with the number of practice teachers enrolled.

The director of the seminar program is responsible to the state ministry of education for the conduct of the program. In collaboration with the seminar teachers, he sets up the working schedule and periodically checks the progress of the individual seminars. He is the chief adviser of all practice teachers, and he frequently visits their classes. Occasionally he calls all seminar teachers together for deliberations on the training program.

It is the task of the seminar teachers to instruct the candidates in the teaching aims and methods of the field concerned and to supervise closely their practice teaching. Actually, any teacher in the school, if called upon, is obligated to co-operate in the job of training teachers, but many of the teachers are hardly touched by the program except for the frequent visitations of their classes by the candidates.

The training of the prospective teacher begins with one to two weeks of observation in classes selected by his seminar instructor. An attempt is made to see that he visits some classes at all levels of instruction. The visits are not limited to the special subject fields of the candidate. It is hoped that the student will acquire from these early visits a feeling for the pulse of the school.

Following the initial period of diversified observation, the members of the seminar are asked to visit the classes of their seminar instructor, particularly those of his classes in which they are to make their first attempts at teaching. They are asked to pay special attention to the various procedures employed by the instructor.

After another week has passed, the students begin practice teaching. In the initial stages a student is allowed only a portion of the regular period, but the matter to be treated is one that has a certain unity—a beginning and an end. Depending somewhat on the progress made, he is then intrusted with whole instructional periods and eventually with a series of successive periods. After approximately three months he is assigned a maximum of six weekly hours of regular teaching.

At first the young pedagogue teaches exclusively in the presence of his seminar teacher and the remaining members of the seminar. Later he is permitted to work with his pupils without constant and direct supervision. It is realized that he needs an opportunity to establish a personal relationship with his classes and that he must learn to face and solve the problems of discipline. The seminar teacher makes periodic checks to ascertain whether the beginner has matters under control.

METHODS OF EVALUATION

In the regular seminar meetings a great portion of the available time is devoted to discussions of the new teachers' successes and failures. Since every member of the seminar is present for his classmates' early attempts at teaching, these discussions become quite lively. It might be said here that German students are less reluctant than our students to criticize the failings of their classmates.

Much stress is put on effective speech. An outside specialist in speech is employed on a part-time basis and put at the disposal of the practice teachers in all fields. Foreign-language teachers are urged to take advantage of all opportunities to improve their command of the foreign tongue.

After the candidates have become somewhat accustomed to the routine of independent teaching, they are subjected to a series of trial lessons (*Lehrproben*). These trial lessons are really hour-long examinations in which the new teacher is carefully observed by all his classmates, by the regular teacher of the subject concerned, by the seminar teacher, and optionally by the director of the entire seminar program. The material to be taught during these special hours of trial is assigned several days in advance. The early trial lessons are held in classes with which the candidate has become familiar through his earlier practice teaching. Later on, he is subjected to trial lessons in classes that are completely new to him. Each trial is subsequently thoroughly discussed by all visitors, and the members of the staff record marks for the performance. Such marks form an important basis for the final evaluation of the student.

OTHER PRACTICES

During the second half of the school year the candidates, while continuing to teach, are expected to audit a great many classes in their own subject as well as in other subject fields. In order to broaden their familiarity with various methods as much as possible, they are even sent to other schools of various types as auditors. The ministry of education is especially interested in having the candidates for secondary-school teaching visit classes in various elementary schools. Furthermore, the candidates are required to take part in extra-curriculum activities, of which, by the way, there are not very many in a German high school.

Throughout the year there are weekly seminar meetings of one or two hours under the leadership of the seminar teacher, that is, the subject specialist. During the first half of the year a great deal of time must naturally be devoted to the practical problems of classroom teaching.

As time permits, the seminar teacher familiarizes his group with the most important literature on the teaching methods of the field. The leading periodicals are constantly kept in the foreground, and many reports on special readings are made by individual students. The students are responsible for the minutes of the meetings, and these records are eventually filed with the ministry of education. Since the war, much stress has been placed on student participation in discussions, and I can testify that efforts in this direction have succeeded amazingly well. Also, every student is required to write a long term-paper on a topic in the methodology of his subject field or in the broader field of educational theory.

The proper use of audio-visual aids receives some attention, but it must be said that very little equipment is in evidence and that there is usually

little money available for slides, films, and other equipment.

In addition to the weekly seminar meetings mentioned previously, there are two-hour weekly meetings for the practice teachers in all subject fields. These general sessions are conducted by the principal or by his appointed representative. The main objective here is to introduce the prospective pedagogues to general educational theory. Some favorite topics are: universal principles of teaching, structure of the school system, current theories on school reform, the task of the secondary school, educational psychology, history of education, and civil service laws.

THE FINAL EXAMINATION

The final examination of the candidates is something to behold. I should like to mention just one aspect of the total ordeal. Each candidate, as a part of his examination, teaches three classes in the presence of an examining committee: the regular teacher of the course, the seminar teacher, the director of the program, and a representative of the ministry of education. Each of the three classes is at a different level—lower, medium, and upper—and one of them must be a class which the candidate has never taught before. He may, however, make one visit to this class previous to his appearance as the teacher. The entire committee evaluates the three performances along with the other phases of the final examination. The mark is of the utmost importance to the candidate. Most of the available positions are civil service positions, and the ministry of education, in filling them, begins with the *A*'s and usually runs out of jobs by the time the *C*'s are reached.

CHIEF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN AMERICAN AND GERMAN SYSTEMS

The chief difference between the American and the German systems of training a teacher is that the Germans allot much less time than we do to general educational theory. German educators, especially those who have visited the United States, frequently comment on this conspicuous difference. Some German educators feel that there is a definite need for more coursework in education, but the Germans are seriously hampered by lack of funds and the universities are apparently not interested in offering a series of courses in education. There can be little thought of expansion in new directions in the German secondary schools as long as so many of their much-needed buildings are still lying around in ruins and as long as many of the buildings in use are in a deplorable state of repair. Incidentally, some of the educational plants house two, and even three, separate schools, which hold forth in turn throughout the day and early evening.

On the other hand, the German practice teacher, as compared with the American, receives a much more thorough training in both the theory and the practice of his special subject fields. In spite of the inadequacy of physical plants, the survivors of the training program know their subject and know how to teach it to others.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

PAUL B. JACOBSON
University of Oregon

ROBERT R. WIEGMAN
University of Portland, Portland, Oregon

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THE NUMBER of articles published in the area of secondary-school organization and administration during the year covered by this bibliography precludes listing all those of merit. The articles that are included are, in the opinion of the compilers, representative of the material published during the twelve-month period from July, 1952, through June, 1953.

ORGANIZATION

Junior High School[1]

661. Gingrich, Robert W. "Junior High Occupations," *Clearing House*, XXVII (April, 1953), 460–62.

Shows how occupational information can become an integral part of a junior high school curriculum and offers suggestions to help in setting up a program which provides such information.

662. Leipold, L. E. "Junior High Schools Face These Problems," *Clearing House*, XXVII (January, 1953), 263–65.

Presents the most pressing problems facing the junior high schools today, based on the opinions of teachers and administrators in that field.

[1] See also Item 31 (Russell) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1953, issue of the *School Review*.

Junior College

663. Fallon, Berlie J. "Modernizing Junior College Budget Practices," *School Executive*, LXXII (March, 1953), 86–87.

States that junior colleges must define their objectives in a positive manner which is based upon the needs of the communities served.

664. Jacob, Peyton. "The Junior College in Georgia," *School Review*, LXI (May, 1953), 290–97.

A rather systematic treatment of the evolution of the junior college in Georgia and a synopsis of the present situation. Developed through data on the "origin, purposes, organization, and control" which are manifested in the emergence of such colleges in this state.

665. JOHNSON, B. LAMAR. "The Advising, Guidance, and Counseling of Junior College Students," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVII (February, 1953), 19–36.

Indicates the importance of the guidance function in education, especially at the junior-college level. Includes basic principles to follow when setting up a program.

666. KABAT, GEORGE J. "Continuous Education for Varying Needs and Abilities," *Junior College Journal*, XXIII (November, 1952), 154–63.

Points out the importance of changing a philosophy of education as conditions change; also, that a little constructive criticism never did any damage to anyone.

667. KIMPTON, LAWRENCE A. "The Junior College in American Education," *Junior College Journal*, XXIII (February, 1953), 303–5.

Discusses the development of the junior college and shows the relation of these schools to the universities, pointing out that co-operation between the two types of institutions is essential.

668. LINDSAY, FRANK B. "Teamwork between College and Community," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (November, 1952), 390–93.

Presents a constructive approach to the tasks facing junior colleges in California, with emphasis on public understanding of what is being attempted.

669. LOMBARDI, JOHN. "Informing the Public about the Philosophy of the Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, XXIII (December, 1952), 215–18.

Cites the special importance of public relations to a new development in education such as the junior college. Relates what the Los Angeles City College has done to build an effective public relations program.

670. PETERSON, BASIL H. "Admission Practices in Relation to Junior-College Education," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVIII (January, 1953), 40–42.

Discusses the problem of admission requirements in the junior college and suggests practices to follow in overcoming such problems.

ARTICULATION

671. BLOUGH, GLENN. "Elementary School Science—Implications for High Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVII (January, 1953), 38–42.

Outlines the present status of, and variations in, elementary-school science education and suggests how high schools could adapt their science programs to fit it.

672. KANDEL, I. L. "The Articulation of Secondary School and College," *School and Society*, LXXVII (February 21, 1953), 122–23.

Presents some of the problems facing colleges regarding articulation and considers the type of high-school system that is most effective in overcoming such problems.

673. NADLER, LEONARD. "A Program of Teacher Exchange," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIV (November, 1952), 31–33.

Proposes a program of teacher intervisitation to aid in breaking down some of the barriers caused by our complex educational system.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

674. CIRILLO, ADAM. "Who Is Qualified To Teach the Tools of the Trade?" *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIV (December, 1952), 39–41.

Identifies the needs of students in vocational high schools and attempts to determine training needed by teachers in such schools.

675. FITZPATRICK, EDWARD A. "Continuation Education—Origin and Underlying Philosophy," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XLII (April, 1953), 119–21.

Presents the philosophy, problems, and practices of a modern vocational school.

676. HOGAN, ANNE M. "Our Vocational Orientation Program," *Journal of Business Education*, XXVIII (December, 1952), 113–14.

Shows the importance of preplanning for field trips and discusses how to organize a vocational-training program which includes field trips.

677. NICHOLS, FREDERICK G. "Leadership Qualifications," *Journal of Business Education*, XXVIII (January, 1953), 140.

Gives thirteen recommendations as to what a supervisor of vocational training should know and be able to do.

678. WEYNAND, JEROME F. "Vocational Program at San Antonio Dates Back to Franciscan Fathers," *Texas Outlook*, XXXVI (August, 1952), 9.

Traces the historical development of vocational education in San Antonio and tells how the program operates.

ADULT EDUCATION

679. BLAKELY, ROBERT J. "Threats to Books," *American Library Association Bulletin*, XLVI (October, 1952), 291–92.

Suggests that adult education is one of the best mediums for combating ideologies which are foreign to our democratic society.

680. "'Challenge of Change' Concerns Adult Education Association," *Nation's Schools*, L (December, 1952), 98, 100.

Identifies and discusses some of the urgent problems in the field of adult education.

681. SPINNEY, ANN. "Bench Marks for Adult Education," *Higher Education*, IX (December 15, 1952), 89–90.

Lists fact-finding surveys which were undertaken to provide a basis for sound long-range plans and policies.

682. VEJTASA, FRANCES. "Learning as You Like It for Adults," *Nation's Schools*, LI (February, 1953), 62–64.

Tells about the Adult Education Center of San Jose, California, which operates on the premise that democracy is the most powerful force in the world.

SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

683. BUSH, ROBERT N. "A New Education for a New Community," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVIII (March, 1953), 122–24.

Discusses some of the educational problems confronting new communities.

684. DAVIS, WENDELL V. "Community and School Equip Cafeteria," *Nation's Schools*, L (July, 1952), 72, 73.

Shows how the co-operation between school and community pays dividends. Offers suggestions for co-operative projects.

685. FRENCH, WILL. "The Modern High School Serves America," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXVII (October, 1952), 193–203.

Thought-provoking and forward-looking article tells how the modern school attempts to serve all its students and the community.

686. GILCHRIST, R. S. "How Successful Are Today's Secondary Schools?" *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXVII (October, 1952), 204–19.

Points out four considerations which are essential in an evaluation of today's secondary schools. Research tells us the following facts: (1) thoughtful, well-planned education benefits our country as well as our youth; (2) good education takes careful preparation; (3) certain traits are basic to an adequate education program; and (4) a school administrator has specific areas to emphasize if he is to be effective in his work.

687. GRACE, A. G. "Europe: Education for What?" *School Executive*, LXXII (December, 1952), 64–66.

A thoughtful article on the purposes of education.

688. JARMAN, ARTHUR M. "The Partnership Concept in School-Community Relations," *School Executive*, LXXII (November, 1952), 78–79.

Stresses the fact that parents and other community members must be made aware of educational problems and should be invited to participate in educational planning.

689. KVARACEUS, WILLIAM C. "What the Elmtowners Think of the Elmtown Study," *School Review*, LX (September, 1952), 352–57.

Describes a follow-up study to determine what townspeople thought of the study made of the institutions and social conditions in a midwest city. Opinions were mixed, but generally unfavorable.

690. LYON, RUTH M. "One, Two, Three—Get Ready," *Instructor*, LXII (September, 1952), 66.

Discusses how to plan classes so as to stimulate interest in a multiple-grade school.

691. SMITH, MARY NEEL. "Making Parent Discussion Groups More Effective," *School Review*, LX (September, 1952), 331–37.

Describes procedures used to encourage more parents of a group of children at the seventh-grade level to participate in a discussion group.

692. SUMPTION, M. R. "School and Community Relationships," *Review of Educational Research*, XXII (October, 1952), 317–28.

Divides the topic into eight subdivisions and discusses the practices, problems, or opinions under each which arise directly from school-community relations.

693. TYLER, R. W. "Next Steps in Improving Secondary Education," *School Review*, LX (December, 1952), 523–31.

A forward look at the evolving secondary school.

ADMINISTRATION

GENERAL[2]

694. BRAUN, CATHERINE H. "Attendance Officer: There's the Human Side," *Clearing House*, XXVII (November, 1952), 141–43.

Describes the attendance system used in Joliet, Illinois, showing how a job that could be impersonal can become warm and satisfying.

[2] See also Item 78 (Elzay) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1953, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

695. CAMPBELL, ROALD F. "Public Participation Can Be More Constructive," *Nation's Schools*, LI (February, 1953), 58–60.

Discusses some promising practices in the art of public participation in public education.

696. LEAMNSON, GEORGE. "The Community's Role in School Administration," *American School Board Journal*, CXXVI (March, 1953), 30–32.

Reports on a current experiment in human relations and reviews the factors which resulted in a decision to include as much of the community as possible in school affairs.

697. "School Enrolment Again Reaches New High," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (October, 1952), 365–66.

Presents the enrolment trends in schools and colleges, which show vividly the problem education will have to contend with during the next several years.

698. Toy, Henry, Jr. "A Report on Our Public Schools," *School Executive*, LXXII (December, 1952), 50–51.

Reports on the activities of the National Citizens Commission for Public Schools.

Democratic Administration

699. Bartky, John A. *Supervision as Human Relations*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1953. Pp. xii+308.

Deals with interpersonal relations in school situations and presents many illustrations of successful practice.

700. Goodwin, Jack C. "How To Improve Principal-Teacher Relations," *School Executive*, LXXII (December, 1952), 48–49.

Discusses areas which might be strengthened by the alert principal who wishes to improve staff relations.

701. Green, Roberta. "The Obstacles to Democratic Administration as Seen by a Teacher," *Progressive Education*, XXX (November, 1952), 35–37.

Discusses some of the practical barriers to democratic administration.

702. Johns, R. L. "How Do You Rate as a Democratic Administrator?" *School Executive*, LXXII (November, 1952), 50–51.

Analyzes school administrators in terms of their ideals, goals, attitudes, methods of work, and relations with other individuals.

703. Moore, Hollis A. "Blind Spots in In-service Education for Administrators," *Nation's Schools*, LI (April, 1953), 43–46.

Reports the current need for in-service help as superintendents see it.

704. Rounds, Lester E. "Delegating Administrative Authority," *Nation's Schools*, L (October, 1952), 57–59.

Discusses a plan for delegating administrative responsibilities to teachers.

705. Weber, C. A. "Leadership and Efficiency," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXVIII (November, 1952), 435–40.

Presents eleven suggestions for administrators to follow to insure a more efficient school program.

Pupil Personnel

706. Adams, Nicholas A. "Guidance—Province of Every School Person," *Educational Leadership*, X (March, 1953), 370–74.

Describes a guidance program based on the assumption that guidance is the responsibility of every school person.

707. Layton, Warren K. "Special Services for the Drop Out and the Potential Drop Out," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVII (March, 1953), 72–76.

Identifies some of the factors causing students to drop out of school and lists ways of attacking the problem.

708. Peters, Jon S. "Guidance in Small Schools," *Nation's Schools*, L (July, 1952), 57.

Emphasizes the importance of guidance in a small school and cites the value of the incidental counseling which probably solves the majority of the student's problems.

709. Scott, Warren B. "Student Personnel Research in the Southern Region, 1948

to 1951," *School and Society*, LXXVII (April 18, 1953), 247–49.

Reports on a survey that was undertaken to determine what is being done in student personnel research, the most necessary areas for future research, and the trends in organization of student personnel programs.

710. TRAPHAGEN, ARTHUR L. "Guidance Is a Co-operative Project," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVIII (January, 1953), 57–59.

Points out the importance of co-operation in guidance and outlines some of the reasons which account for difficulty in achieving such co-operation.

711. VAN HALL, MILO. "The Guidance Advisory System," *Junior College Journal*, XXIII (January, 1953), 255–56.

Reports on the activities of the Guidance Advisory Committee operating in the state of New York, which aids school counselors and advisers in solving their problems.

DISCIPLINE

712. BROBERG, EDITH H. "Discipline in the Study Hall," *Clearing House*, XXVII (March, 1953), 408–11.

Suggests methods and techniques for making study halls operate successfully and efficiently.

713. CHRISTOPHE, LEROY M. "The Principal's Responsibilities for Developing and Maintaining Discipline in the High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVII (February, 1953), 37–44.

Presents principles and concepts of discipline that are currently accepted and suggests methods for implementing such connections into school programs.

714. JENT, H. CLAY. "We Must Not Make It Seem Like Criticism," *Progressive Education*, XXX (April, 1953), 182–84.

Points out that teachers are sometimes confused in their understanding of basic democratic principles and privileges.

715. TONSOR, CHARLES A. "The Children You Won't Have in Your Room," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIV (November, 1952), 9–12.

Discusses characteristics of maladjusted children and suggests a program of action for aiding them to adjust.

716. TONSOR, CHARLES A. "Some Fundamentals of Discipline," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVII (March, 1953), 146–47.

Contends that discipline acquaints youth with standards—certain fixed landmarks which produce a feeling of security.

FINANCING ACTIVITIES

717. HALBERSTADT, L. C. "School-Community Funds," *Nation's Schools*, LI (April, 1953), 98, 100.

Discusses the expanded obligations and responsibilities of the business office of the school in the field of extra-school financial activities.

718. SHANNON, J. R. "Then and Now in School Activities," *School Activities*, XXIV (March, 1953), 215–17.

Summarizes some malpractices in financial management of extra-curriculum activity funds.

719. THOMSON, PROCTER. "Economic Prospects and School Finance," *School Review*, LX (October and November, 1952), 397–403, 474–80.

Two articles on the relation of economics to education, which discuss the long-run factors and the short-run factor of inflation.

Public Relations

720. Ames, Dora A. "A Community Occupational Survey as a Public Relations Instrument," *School Review*, LXI (January, 1953), 30–33.

Describes a survey begun in May, 1950, in Toms River (New Jersey) High School. The purpose was to develop a basis for vocational curriculum revision—in effect it broadened into a full-scale curriculum revision. Understanding and good relations resulted between the school components and the entire community.

721. Bartky, A. John. "Reason, Propaganda, and Attacks upon the Schools," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXIX (January, 1953), 1–13.

Contends that replies to public criticisms of the schools should be in terms of facts and not emotionalized, biased judgments.

722. Butterfield, E. E. "Examining Our Public Relations," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVII (April, 1953), 357–62.

Examines the school's relations with four groups: the press, the parents, the parent-teachers' association, and the public.

723. Fitzpatrick, Edward A. "Public Education Is Public Business," *American School Board Journal*, CXXVI (April, 1953), 54–55.

Emphasizes the point that an active public opinion expressing itself is a sign of vitality.

724. Stapleton, Edward Guy. "Put the Taxpayer in Your Corner," *School Executive*, LXXII (October, 1952), 70–73.

Presents the story of the public relations program in the public school system of Baltimore County, Maryland: the factors that make it necessary, the details of its working-out, and the results.

Standards and Accreditation

725. Eckhardt, John W. "Union High School District Appraises Itself," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVIII (February, 1953), 90–93.

Describes the comparative application of the *Evaluative Criteria* in a self-evaluating program.

726. Hudson, Mary-Catherine. "An Academic Standard for Each Kind of Student," *Clearing House*, XXVII (November, 1952), 149–52.

Suggests that students and subjects be classified according to college-entrance, vocational, and general groupings and that standards of achievement be established in terms of the needs and goals of each group.

Six-Year High School

727. Lappin, C. G. "How Can We Improve the Administration of Our Six-Year Schools?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVII (April, 1953), 200–201.

Discusses specific practices that have proved practical.

728. White, Stuart M. "How Can We Improve the Administration of Our Six-Year Schools?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVII (April, 1953), 197–200.

Points out that problems of administration in all types of schools are similar.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

*

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A. M. JORDAN, *Measurement in Education: An Introduction*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. xii+534. $5.25.

Of all the procedures characteristic of present-day schools, probably no other varies so greatly from school to school as does measurement. At one extreme, a small proportion of schools administer from four to eight or more tests to each pupil annually, record the results cumulatively, and use the data in teaching and personnel work with individuals. At the other extreme, some schools use no measures of any kind except teacher-made, essay-type examinations. The schools forming the large in-between group give tests occasionally, but they do not carry on regular, systematic programs of measurement, and they are not well informed concerning the kinds and functions of measurement devices available to them. Jordan's book, *Measurement in Education*, seems well designed to help these schools choose tests more effectively and employ them with greater understanding.

The book consists of four parts. In the first three chapters of Part I, "Problems of Measurement," the measurement problems in guidance and education are presented and the characteristics and construction of measurement instruments are discussed. The rest of Part I consists of a series of ten chapters dealing in detail with achievement-test batteries and achievement tests in the different fields of study. Tests for both elementary and secondary schools are considered. This part accounts for approximately two-thirds of the book.

Part II consists of two chapters on the measurement of intelligence. The Terman-Merrill Revision of the Stanford-Binet Scale, the Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale, and a large number of group tests of mental ability for all grade levels are discussed.

Part III, called "Personality Inventories," contains three chapters—one on the measurement of interests, one on the measurement of attitudes, and one on the measurement of personal qualities. Structured instruments rather than projective techniques are stressed.

Part IV is made up of one chapter on statistical methods which is one of the best chapters in the book. It presents simply and clearly the essentials of elementary statistics needed by teachers and guidance workers and, at the same time, avoids going ingo statistical concepts and procedures seldom used by schools.

In the Preface the author indicates that his book represents a combination of two approaches to the preparation of textbooks on measurement in education—one that develops logically the history and principles of testing, with no detailed study of particular tests, and one that describes tests in detail but gives little attention to principles. While a study of the book shows that this statement is correct, the greater emphasis seems to be on test description. More than half the book is concerned primarily with listings and descriptions of specific tests, together with critical comments.

The book is competently written, and the large fund of information supplied about specific tests seems to be accurate, with a few exceptions too minor to deserve mention.

This reviewer's general estimate of the

book is favorable, but certain limitations should be noted. The book seems to be written from the point of view of one who studies tests and testing procedures and teaches others about them rather than of one who is, through constant use, intimately acquainted with the strengths, limitations, and relative merits of tests. While the author presents a good deal of helpful criticism of the instruments discussed, there is a tendency in a considerable number of instances to accept uncritically the reliability and validity data reported by the publisher of the test instead of taking into consideration the other available research data.

Moreover, some of the material in the book is not so recent as the copyright date would lead one to expect. Certain tests that have been out of print for some time are presented as though current. Examples are the Cooperative Literary Acquaintance Test, the Cooperative Economics Test, the American Council Civics and Government Test, the Gates-Strang Health Knowledge Test, and various Thurstone Attitude Scales. At the same time, no discussion is given of some of the most promising tests recently published. These include such tests as the Evaluation and Adjustment Series of the World Book Company, which promises to be a fairly active competitor of the Cooperative Achievement Tests so extensively discussed in Jordan's book; the Diagnostic Reading Tests published by the Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests; the Iowa Tests of Educational Development; and a good many others.

The worth of the book may also be limited to some degree by the fact that a rather small amount of attention is given to an aspect of measurement with which nearly all schools greatly need assistance—the *organization* and *use* of the test results.

Notwithstanding these reservations, the book should enjoy wide use. Whether it should be recommended as a textbook in preference to other books on educational measurement probably depends upon circumstances. If a comprehensive, up-to-date file of tests is available to the class, a textbook stressing principles of test development, administration, and use might be preferable. This book, with its emphasis on specific measurement instruments combined with some attention to theory, seems particularly suited for use in institutions that do not have an adequate test file and under conditions where it is not feasible to ask the students to purchase specimen sets of tests. Likewise, many elementary and secondary schools will find Jordan's book a helpful reference work for teachers and counselors.

ARTHUR E. TRAXLER

Educational Records Bureau
New York City

LAURENCE S. FLAUM, *The Activity High School: The Principles of Its Operation.* New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1953. Pp. viii+418. $4.50.

Teachers and administrators who are looking for practical suggestions on how to reconstruct the program of the secondary school should read *The Activity High School.* Just what are the causes for the lag between what is known and what is done about education for American youth? Some would place the blame with the colleges, which, they say, would not accept the graduates of these new schools. To others, the recent attacks on public education are an indication that now is not the time to experiment with new programs. Although a few schools have pioneered in the development of a curriculum to meet the needs of youth, the great mass of secondary schools have not followed their lead. The success of the Eight-Year Study in showing that college preparation is more dependent upon the quality of work done than upon the pattern of courses taken in high school is somehow ignored. The Educational Policies Commission report on *Education for All American Youth,* with its many sugges-

tions for the modern secondary-school program, has had only a moderate effect on the high-school curriculum.

Even though school faculties are being organized in increasing numbers to study the curriculum, the high school, with but few exceptions, remains relatively unchanged. Perhaps in all these efforts too little attention has been given to the tremendously creative task which teachers must perform to bring such a program into reality. In this book Flaum does not overlook such a possibility, which is based on the assumption that curriculum change results from changes that take place in teachers and administrators. These changes are, first, in point of view. They result from intensive study of the problems and needs of the youth as they grow up to understand our culture and how it impinges on their lives. To them the high school becomes an agency for the induction of youth into the responsibilities of democratic living.

The Activity High School is not a prescription to be followed by those who would build such a program for youth. Rather, it is intended to serve administrators, teachers, parents, laymen, and others as a "direction finder in the scope and practice of our high schools" (p. 17). In his attempt to achieve this goal, the author has taken great pains to show what youth are like and how the program must be adapted to their development in preference to molding them into preconceived patterns.

The laboratory approach to teaching is especially well described and illustrated. Certainly, few teachers could fail to find worthwhile suggestions in the author's analysis of this method and the purposes to be served by it. The major portion of the book is devoted to principles of action, suggested activities, illustrations of the laboratory-approach method, kinds of resources to be used, and procedures that might be helpful in evaluation. This is done for all areas of the school program.

The latter portion of the book deals with the over-all structure of the high school—how the various parts of the curriculum fit together. It is an attempt to integrate class activity, the extra-class program, guidance, and evaluation. Certainly these should be combined in a unified program of action with one common goal. Actual daily schedules are shown to suggest ways in which such a program could function in a modern school. Extra-class activities appropriate to such a program are listed. The student council is given a place of prominence in the school. Seminar guidance activities are proposed. Competitive activities are given no place in the program, but recreational and social experiences are thought to contribute greatly to the purposes to be achieved.

From the discussion of guidance principles and practice, the reader could get the impression that guidance and teaching are separate functions. While it is true that certain guidance services must be performed by those having special preparation for them, the bulk of the guidance which a student receives in school still comes from the teacher. The author undoubtedly intends to convey this meaning, for he says: "In order to organize a guidance program which will realize the varied needs of our students, the whole environment must become one in which creative individual development can take place" (p. 341).

Helping the student to learn to understand himself and his growth is the major objective of the evaluation program proposed. The concept that learning is behavior change is emphasized throughout this discussion. The reader would do well to study the author's proposals for evaluations by teacher, individual, and groups and the suggestions which he makes for reporting practices.

The direction-finding concept built around the many principles of operation that are offered for the consideration of teachers is the outstanding contribution of this book to professional literature. This is achieved best in that portion of the book in which the author develops the laboratory approach to

instruction. The latter portion, which deals with structure, tends to be somewhat more prescriptive, and, although highly suggestive, is less replete with principles that might serve as "finders."

JOHN A. RAMSEYER

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A Television Policy for Education. Proceedings of the Television Programs Institute Held under the Auspices of the American Council on Education at Pennsylvania State College, April 21–24, 1952. Edited by CARROLL V. NEWSOM. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1952. Pp. xx+266. $3.50.

In midspring, 1952, a four-day conference on the future of educational television was held on the campus of Pennsylvania State College. Under the sponsorship of the American Council on Education, there was gathered together a selected group of participants with diverse backgrounds but a common interest: "to gain greater understanding of the role of television, both through educational and commercial channels, in the total educational process." The book under review is a report of the proceedings of the conference.

Television has come upon the national scene so suddenly and has grown to enormous size so fast that no one mind can grasp its present impact or its future significance. A symposium of views such as the one here presented is the only possible method of approach. Despite the title of the volume, the conference did not work out a television policy for education (it could not have done so!) but it did take the necessary first steps toward the formulation of that policy. It provided a place at which college presidents, leaders of the communications industry, high government officials, and specialists in educational and commercial television could meet and talk with one another.

The results were inevitably bound to be more rewarding to the participants than to anyone else, but the editor, Carroll V. Newsom, has tried to preserve as many values as possible for those who must be content with reading. He has selected, arranged, compressed, and focused a very broad range of materials and has brought about as much order as was possible in view of the variety of approaches used and the differences of the viewpoints expressed.

Television is progressing (or, at least, changing!) at so rapid a rate that this volume was already slightly out of date before it was even published. A similar fate awaits any other book written on the same subject. For the time being, however, anyone who wishes to gain a broad comprehension of educational television cannot do better than to start by reading *A Television Policy for Education.*

CYRIL O. HOULE

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KIMBALL WILES, *Teaching for Better Schools.* New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. Pp. xiv+398. $4.00.

The growing emphasis on teacher-pupil planning has aroused widespread interest in the role of the teacher. Groups of teachers everywhere are asking themselves how to bring into some harmony the new concepts about the co-operative nature of the learning process and their own picture of themselves in their classrooms. Future teachers are exploring the same kind of question in most colleges of education.

For professional persons concerned with this dilemma, *Teaching for Better Schools* can make a significant contribution. It offers practical help on how we can see our role as teachers devoted to co-operative planning in the classroom. The author recognizes the imperfections of our understanding and skill, and he leads us gradually and with respect for our personality. Yet he never loses sight

of the goals which all of us must seek if we would work co-operatively with children and youth.

The book begins with two excellent exploratory chapters on the teaching-learning situation and the teacher's role. Following these there are sections titled "Teaching Is Skill in Human Relations" (two chapters); "Teaching Is Skill in Group Work" (four chapters); "Teaching Is Skill in Evaluation" (two chapters); "Teaching Is Skill in Individualizing Instruction" (two chapters); "Teaching Is Skill in Cooperation" and "Teaching Is Skill in Self-improvement" (one chapter each).

The entire volume is oriented clearly and sharply toward the important question of how a teacher can effectively use group activities and other related co-operative procedures, and work with, rather than against, the natural learning drives of boys and girls. Nearly every chapter closes with a device used by Wiles in an earlier book: a listing of the techniques and concepts with which the chapter has been concerned. There is a wealth of actual anecdotal illustrations drawn from the classroom. In addition to these anecdotes, there is frequent use of illustrations in the theoretical sections of each chapter. Pages are frequently warmed by matchstick cartoons, many of them cleverly contrived to emphasize a technique or an issue.

The book is written simply and clearly and is unusually free from the "pedagese" which is the curse of much professional writing in education. There are many passages which would tempt one to quote them if space permitted; the author has the knack of getting quickly into the heart of an issue and making it clear—an approach which helps equally to make the solution appear inevitable and logical.

An interesting section in the Appendix is titled "Significant Research." In this section are seventeen pages of well-chosen, compact listings of pertinent research, with a paragraph abstract of the technique used and the results. The reader is left to make his own connection between this useful material and the text. It is possible that not many readers will discover or use these examples of "Significant Research." The section is preceded by a useful listing of books, pamphlets, and magazine articles which relate, for the most part, to the techniques associated with group planning and human relations in the classroom.

Teaching for Better Schools is an excellent book which has already proved a rich resource in this reviewer's graduate classes. Most in-service teachers identify readily with the book and seek to know more about the concepts and practices which it introduces to them. No greater tribute can be paid to professional writing.

ROLAND C. FAUNCE

Wayne University

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THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

*

THE TRANSIT OF CIVILIZATION

THE transmission of cultural elements from one people to another is one of the most fascinating aspects of the study of history—a process which our nineteenth-century historian and novelist Edward Eggleston aptly dubbed the "transit of civilization." We Americans have been especially concerned with the form which this process took in this country and with the special influence which frontier conditions had upon it. Sixty years ago Frederick Jackson Turner founded one of the most productive schools of American historiography upon a reaction against the excessive emphasis upon European origins and the concomitant neglect of the American development and adaptation of that heritage. More recently other American historians, notably those concerned particularly with the history of immigrant groups, have helped to restore our sense of the continuing process of cultural transmission and so to correct Turner's corrective. In a day when to label a proposal "un-American" is, for some unthinking people, to damn it without further examination, we could do nothing better in our historical instruction than to study the genesis and development of some of our most characteristically American ideas and institutions as examples of this process of cultural interaction.

Education today in Germany

But that the process of cultural transmission is not a "one-way street" is well brought out by Vaughn R. DeLong's "German Education in Transition" in the *Department of State Field Reporter* for November–December, 1952. After summarizing a few of the well-known facts about the indebtedness of American to German education before 1914, Mr. DeLong describes some of the major influences which American educators have had upon West German educa-

tion since 1945. There, after the necessary but negative work of denazification of teachers and of textbooks had been done, "school reform" became the slogan under which Americans sought to bring about desirable changes in the thinking and practices of German educators. Among these developments were the following: aiding in the provision of new and renovated school buildings; making free textbooks available; introducing the concept of the "social studies" to reorient the almost exclusively historical approach to this field; extending somewhat the scope of free schooling and the length of the common or unified school; increasing the amount and raising the quality of vocational guidance and of health services; establishing student councils in secondary schools; and enlisting the active cooperation of parents in dealing with educational problems. Notably effective as means for stimulating these changes were the use of American educators, the bringing to the United States of representative German teachers and students, the establishment of libraries where extensive information about American life and education was available; and the use, periodically, of the educational workshop. Mr. DeLong believes that today "there is a steady, if slow, movement away from authoritarianism" in German education.

A less optimistic view of German "school reform" and of American cultural relations abroad has been stated by G. Robert Koopman, associate superintendent of public instruction in the state of Michigan and formerly chief of the Education and Cultural Relations Division Office of the U.S. High Commissioner in Germany, in the *Nation's Schools* (December, 1952) and in *Phi Delta Kappan* and *Educational Leadership* (February, 1953). Basically, Mr. Koopman thinks that we "missed the boat" in leaving high policy determinations in the cultural field to military and, later, to State Department career-men who "saw the cultural program as either a tool for carrying out political objectives or as a necessary evil—usually the latter." As a remedy Mr. Koopman makes three major proposals: (1) "a program of international cultural relations which will be democratic, sincere, overt, co-planned with the cultural agencies, in accordance with the principles of cultural anthropology, and completely independent of information, propaganda, and psychological warfare programs"; (2) a new personnel program which would staff cultural programs with professional educators; and (3) the encouragement of close relations between unofficial cultural agencies in this country with their counterparts in foreign lands.

Those who are interested in a short, systematic survey of contemporary education in Western Germany will find rewarding *Education in Western Germany* by Dr. Hans Wenke, professor of pedagogy and philosophy at the University of Tübingen (Washington: Library of Congress Reference Department, European Affairs Division,

1953. $1.00). From this report it is clear that neither the aims nor the structure of German education have been fundamentally changed in the past few years but that German educators have been stimulated to correct weaknesses long apparent to some of them and to select rather discriminatingly from the suggestions which we (and others) have offered them. Professor Wenke also makes clear, in passing, the vast difference between educational reform in Western Germany and the "cultural imperialism," among other kinds, characteristic of Eastern Germany under the Communist regime.

Wenke's discussion of the problem of providing Germans with an adequate political education from the universities down is especially interesting. Today "the setting-up of chairs for a field of knowledge that is by no means identical with, but corresponds to, the American concept of political science proceeds apace in all the Länder of Western Germany." Truly here is a case of "bread upon the waters" returning after many days: American political science owed much in its beginnings to the inspiration of German jurists, and the discussion of political education in secondary schools has been quite lively in recent German educational writing. Professor Wenke ends his survey with descriptions of teacher training and of institutions of educational research in Western Germany.

Last April one of the latter, the new Institute for Educational Research in Frankfurt am Main, held a conference on European education which called upon Western European educators to stress, in the education of European children, their "common achievements and enterprises" and to work specifically toward overcoming "racial, religious, national, social, and other prejudices of all kinds" (*Bildung und Erziehung*, April–May, 1953).

The preceding May an even more interesting conference of German and American history teachers had been held at Braunschweig (Brunswick) to eliminate, so far as possible, nationalistic distortions in history textbooks. Americans pointed out serious omissions and errors in German history books about the United States, and German historians performed a similar service for the Americans. The emphases which the Americans wished to see in German treatment of our history included the following: American achievements in culture (in addition to "jazz"); a positive understanding of democracy as understood and practiced here and as embodied in some of our great leaders; the significance for the world of our ethnic diversity; and the twin concepts of the influence of the frontier and of the continuing cultural interaction between the United States and Europe. Perhaps the keynote of the conference was best expressed by A. St. Langeland, of Oslo:

> In this work of ours we really get into a sort of dilemma. When I was . . . trying to explain the Norwegian point of view, I could not help noticing that somewhere in my mind a nationalistic devil was at work. . . .

Perhaps we had better be aware of this danger and keep our heads cool both ways—not allow ourselves to become nationalistic in our parts as critics, and not to be too apt to drop our convictions in order to obtain an artificial mutual understanding.

An excellent account of this conference written by Professor Robert La-Follette, of Ball State Teachers College, appeared in *Social Education* last May; for the full proceedings, see the second volume of the *Internationales Jahrbuch für Geschichtsunterricht* (Braunschweig: Albert Limbach Verlag, 1953. $1.50).

Education in other countries

Harried administrators and teachers in American schools will learn from the latest *International Yearbook of Education* (Paris: UNESCO [and] Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1952) that their problems are almost universal:

> Almost throughout the world educational costs rose [for the school year 1951–52] . . . enrolments increased at all levels, teachers and buildings were in short supply, and structural changes were being made at [the] secondary level. . . .
>
> [Buildings] are becoming more and more inadequate in relation to the rising scale of needs.

More detailed descriptions and interpretation of other educational systems than our own may be found in several 1952 bulletins issued by the United States Office of Education. In Bulletin 17, *Education in Sweden*, Alina M. Lindegren of the Office discusses the admirable educational system of Sweden, which has recently embarked with vigor and intelligence upon a long-term "educational reform." The even more interesting story of an educational system which has been built substantially within the past half-century is told in Abdul H. K. Sassani's *Education in Turkey* (Bulletin 1952, No. 10). Particularly useful would be a more detailed account of the way in which the influence of John Dewey upon the elementary-school, and of the French lycée upon the secondary-school, systems have been harmonized (if they have) in this progressive Near Eastern country. *Higher Education in France* (Bulletin 1952, No. 6) by Edith Kahler is a useful handbook of information, without much description or any interpretation, for American students who plan to study in French universities.

Exchange-student program

Recently the Institute of International Education (1 East Sixty-seventh Street, New York 21) set up an "alumni office" to re-establish contact with American students who have gone abroad and with men and women from nearly eighty countries who once studied in American colleges and universities in scholarship programs administered by the Institute. The study of the later careers of these "alumni" will, it is hoped, give some indication of the efficacy of the exchange-of-persons programs in contributing to international understanding and so influence such programs in the future.

During 1952 the Institute supervised the study in 469 American col-

leges and universities of 2,960 foreign-scholarship students from 80 countries and arranged for the placement of almost as many more. The Institute recommended 817 American graduate students for United States Fulbright scholarships to 18 countries in the same year.

Despite our admitted imperfections educationally, the United States is not far today from occupying the place, in relation to "underdeveloped" countries today, which Germany occupied a century ago. The "transit of civilization" goes on.

Communism in Education

Slight as is the influence of communism in American education, such influence constitutes a tremendous, and probably a growing, problem in many parts of the non-Communist world. When Communist organizations, "fronts," and propaganda are combined with grinding poverty for the vast majority of the people, with a virulent anti-Western complex of attitudes on the part of colonial and recently independent non-Caucasians, with a condition of illiteracy and half-literacy of peasant populations, and with a growing "educated proletariat" competing for a few jobs in government service, the threat of an advancing Communist movement is certainly no "red herring."

Reports on other continents

Such are the reflections aroused by reading, in issues of the *Educational Record* since October, 1952 the careful reports of the travels and investigations of Walter Crosby Eells in Southeast Asia, Australasia, India, Ceylon, Pakistan, and Africa. In these lands the recent situation varies from the extreme of official governmental "neutrality" in strife-torn Burma to "no known Communists" in Formosa, where death is the penalty for such affiliation. But in most of these countries Communist organizations include large numbers, though still a minority, of university students, some from the lower schools, and a few teachers. Where living standards are highest, as in New Zealand and Australia, Communist influence is weak (except in New South Wales); in Ceylon it is described as "vociferous but ineffective." Where living conditions are marginal for so many, and where anti-Western attitudes are widespread, as in Indonesia, India, and Egypt, the Communists seem to be doing all too well in stirring up trouble over real and alleged grievances. The fact that, politically, communism has made most headway in Travancore-Cochin, the most literate state of India, is especially disturbing.

To Mr. Eells the demonstrations against low scholarships and salaries, the use of local grievances, such as the language issue in East Pakistan, to incite riots, and the propaganda work in the villages required of Communist and would-be Communist students in India reveal a pattern of influence and action which illuminates Lenin's remark that "the road from Moscow to Paris leads through Peking, Shanghai,

and Calcutta." It is somewhat comforting to hear from Mr. Eells that the United States Information Service was doing a good job in Pakistan and Ceylon to counteract Communist propaganda, but it is also disconcerting to learn that the distribution of this literature was handicapped by the fact that it cost the reader about 100 per cent more than competing Communist publications.

All who are interested in this problem (and who is not?) will look with interest to Mr. Eells' later reports and to his recommendations as to what we can best do in this crucial battle for the minds of a third of mankind.

Communists in our schools

In clarifying American educators' thinking on the problem of dealing with the few Communists in American schools—if any are still there—probably no one has made a more significant contribution than Sidney Hook, chairman of the Department of Philosophy at New York University. In his recent book, *Heresy, Yes—Conspiracy, No* (New York: John Day Co., 1953. $3.75), he has analyzed this vital distinction and its implications for academic and intellectual freedom and has made some positive proposals which avoid the excesses of the two groups whom he dubs "cultural vigilantes" and "ritualistic liberals." Obviously, Professor Hook's theses will not be universally acceptable, but they command respectful attention, and, where disagreement exists, they require well-grounded criticism, not misrepresentation or neglect. Hook's underlying thesis is that "American institutions have a vitality and a viability which, with a little gumption and intelligence, can effectively meet the threat of totalitarianism from abroad and at home without the loss of our own essential freedoms."

Assuming that our society is a "liberal" one, Professor Hook states that what the realistic liberal fears is "not heresy but conspiracy." By "heresy" Professor Hook means "a set of unpopular ideas or opinions on matters of grave concern to the community":

> The right to profess publicly a heresy of any character, on any theme, is an essential element of a liberal society. . . . It is enough that the heretic pays the price of unpopularity which he cannot avoid. . . . A conspiracy, as distinct from a heresy, is a secret or underground movement which seeks to attain its ends not by normal political or educational processes but by playing outside the rules of the game. Because it undermines the conditions which are required in order that doctrines may freely compete for acceptance, because where successful it ruthlessly destroys all heretics and dissenters, a conspiracy cannot be tolerated without self-stultification in a liberal society.

After arguing cogently that membership in the Communist party disqualifies a person for teaching in a free society, Professor Hook proposes that neither the state nor the university administrations but the faculties (on college and university levels) should concern themselves with the establishment of the facts in each case and with the procedures leading to the dismissal of Communist party members. For a non-Communist who misrepresents

established facts in parroting the Communist "line," Hook recommends that "such a man should have his credentials to competent scholarship openly questioned by his peers." To what extent such measures might be effective below the college level is not discussed by Professor Hook. Some who would agree with his prescriptions for higher education might look for remedy to administrative action, properly safeguarded, in the schools.

The views of the President

Newspaper reports about the experiences of some of our soldiers in Communist prison camps underscore the need for American young men to understand communism before they enter military service. My own view of this issue was adequately stated in this section of the *School Review* in October, 1951. The following excerpts from President Eisenhower's letter of last June to Robert B. Downs, president of the American Library Association (*ALA Bulletin* for July–August, 1953) give support to those who would keep the channels of information open:

> . . . we must in these times be intelligently alert not only to the fanatic cunning of Communist conspiracy—but also to the grave dangers in meeting fanaticism with ignorance. For, in order to fight totalitarians who exploit the ways of freedom to serve their own ends, there are some zealots who —with more wrath than wisdom—would adopt a strangely unintelligent course. They would try to deny freedom by denying freedom's friends the opportunity of studying communism in its entirety—its plausibilities, its falsities, its weaknesses.
>
> But we know that freedom cannot be served by the devices of the tyrant. As it is an ancient truth that freedom cannot be legislated into existence, so it is no less obvious that freedom cannot be censored into existence. And any who act as if freedom's defenses are to be found in suppression and suspicion and fear confess a doctrine that is alien to America.
>
> The libraries of America are and must ever remain the homes of free, inquiring minds. To them, our citizens—of all ages and races, of all creeds and political persuasions —must ever be able to turn with clear confidence that there they can freely seek the whole truth, unwarped by fashion and uncompromised by expediency. For in such whole and healthy knowledge alone are to be found and understood those majestic truths of man's nature and destiny that prove, to each succeeding generation, the validity of freedom.

Education in World Affairs

The overwhelming importance of education in world affairs is underlined by the devotion to this topic of the July–August issue of *Adult Leadership* (743 North Wabash Avenue, Chicago 11, Illinois). In this magazine Walter H. C. Laves, the new chairman of the United States National Commission for UNESCO, analyzes the "essentials of international understanding" along lines similar to his earlier analysis summarized in this column in October, 1951. H. Lionel Elvin, the director of the Department of Education of UNESCO, emphasizes that the immediate need is that of giving training in international affairs to key people:

> On the national plane I believe that time presses too much for us to wait for universal adult education. In every community let us be content if we get into our classes and

groups the comparative few whose voices may count. Let the doors be open to everyone, with an equal welcome for all. But let us not be downcast if fewer people come in than will go to a football game.

Other articles go into details on the "what to do" and "how to do it." For any school planning an adult-education program in the international relations field, this issue will be most useful.

Group leaders and teachers in this field on all educational levels will find invaluable the new *United Nations Radio Handbook for Teachers* (New York: United Nations, Department of Public Information, April, 1953). This pamphlet contains a general description of the radio and television developments which publicize UN proceedings, describes briefly the main UN agencies, gives a schedule of its chief broadcasts, and adds suggestions for class use of such programs. Finally, there is an annotated bibliography of available source materials in the form of recordings, films, and printed matter.

For obtaining an understanding of the efforts of the United Nations to help "underdeveloped" countries raise their levels of living—surely an important aspect of a fair and balanced study of the UN—nothing better for both adults and high-school students has appeared than *Sharing Skills: Stories of Technical Assistance* (New York: United Nations, Department of Public Information, 1953. $0.35). Here are twelve case studies which tell interestingly who did what to help whom. More important, this booklet clarifies two points often misunderstood.

First, technical assistance need not, in many cases, involve large-scale foreign capital gifts or loans. For example, American tractors and combines simply would not fit the geographical, economic, and social conditions of agriculture in most of Afghanistan. But the wide use there of an improved scythe in place of a primitive sickle followed demonstrations by Swiss and Austrian experts and resulted in an Afghan being sent to Switzerland for a year's training in the use of hand tools. And the scythes can now be produced by Afghan blacksmiths for local use.

Another point which is often misunderstood follows from the assumption that technical assistance flows only from the "developed" to the "underdeveloped" countries. But actually, up to October, 1952, a thousand experts had gone out from sixty-one nations, a minority of which would be called "developed." Here we have, rather, a joint pooling of skills. One of the best examples is the spread of Indonesian methods of fish-farming to Thailand, Israel, and Haiti under the auspices of the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations. The same point is illustrated by the fact that the three FAO experts fighting rinderpest in Ethiopia since 1948 come from Chile, Australia, and Korea.

Round the World with a Postage Stamp: A Booklet for Teachers and

Children about the Universal Postal Union describes the work of one of the oldest and the most nearly universal international governmental organizations. Informative and well-written, it is, despite its title, probably most useful on the high-school level in this country. Chapter titles include the following: "The Post," "The Postage Stamp," "The Letter's Journey," "Postal Services," "The Universal Postal Union," and "The International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union." Published as Number 12 in the UNESCO series "Towards World Understanding," this pamphlet and other UNESCO publications are available through the International Document Service, Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, New York.

In using such materials, as I pointed out a year ago in these pages of the *School Review*, the teacher must not lay himself open to legitimate criticisms of "stacking the deck" on one side or of making the study of the United Nations the sum of significant teaching about international relations. Given a fair approach and a truly critical point of view in the classroom, these materials are valuable, when properly supplemented. As the Educational Policies Commission said a year ago (in *The United Nations, UNESCO, and American Schools*):

> Young Americans, as part of their education for citizenship, should have opportunities to learn in school why their country is following a policy of international co-operation, how that policy works, and what it means to have their country a member of the UN and UNESCO. Teaching about such things is an obligation resting upon all public schools in the United States.

The Commission then acknowledged the undoubted right of American citizens to change our national policy toward the United Nations but added:

> Those who would have the schools suppress the facts of history as they relate to the UN and UNESCO or would have the schools teach a particular point of view about these organizations are in a position that is indefensible in terms of American principles.

Presumably the Commission meant by "teach a particular point of view" the presentation of one view only, or of one view as the only legitimate view to take on *policy;* certainly no teaching about the United Nations which neglected to consider its weaknesses and major criticisms thereof could be called adequate any more than one which failed to point out its accomplishments.

A similar point is raised by the resolution passed last March by the Association for Higher Education which urged "all members of the academic profession to make greater efforts to interest all students in the importance and responsibilities of participation and leadership in the world community, and in the understanding of the principles and objectives of the United Nations, its subsidiary agencies, such as UNESCO in that world community." To this statement the "structure and functioning" of these bodies should have been added to

avoid teaching students the kind of unrealistic naïveté which comes from looking only at high-sounding objectives to the exclusion of their institutional embodiment. Furthermore, such realistic study must face up to the question of how much "community" there is in the "world community" today.

The Social Studies

Non-textbook materials for the student

An attempt to "make world history memorable" and interesting is found in *News of the World: A History of the World in Newspaper Style* by Sylvan Hoffmann and C. Hartley Grattan (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953. $3.72). In fifty-two numbers of four pages each, ranging in date from 3000 B.C. to "the present" (in this case, 1951), this work is intended to give "a broad outline of world events . . . in a popular and contemporary style . . . by covering political, cultural, and other newsworthy events." The material is chiefly of a factual nature, with the editorials providing interpretation from the point of view of our own time. Each number is profusely and relevantly illustrated.

The present writer must dissent from Professor Crane Brinton's view expressed in the Foreword that "anything that will bring the story of peoples and events on the international scale to the American people is of extreme value." It seems, rather, that any school materials whose very selection and presentation of items inoculate the pupils against gaining the point of view of the people described promote the exact antithesis of the historical outlook which, even more than factual knowledge, is one of the greatest lacks and needs in American social education today. Anachronisms abound, for example, one reference to "England" during the Roman imperial period and another to St. Patrick as "an Englishman," among others.

Of course the teacher who is interested only in using this work to stimulate pupils' interest in more conventional materials will find it moderately helpful. And the teacher who wishes students to go to a few actual source readings if time permits—as it usually does not in the typical desiccated world-history course—may stimulate both fun and learning by having students discover for themselves some of the anachronisms and unhistorical "twists" which inhere in this form of presentation.

In the junior college the problem of what to do with non-American history is also a knotty one. Passing over the minority who would solve the problem by eliminating the history, we usually find four alternatives to concentrate on: (1) modern history, (2) the "traditional" "medieval and modern European" history in some more or less modernized form, (3) Western civilization, and (4) world history in a comprehensive sense. Educators who are concerned about helping students get some idea of the ways in which civilizations, in Toynbee's sense, origi-

nate, grow, and pass away must reject at least the first two and look critically at the third solution. On the other hand, if these same teachers wish to get away from the imposition of textbook dogmas through the student use of primary materials, every significant extension of the course in time and space multiplies the pedagogical problem.

The solution worked out by the history staff of the College of the University of Chicago is to concentrate upon significant epochs and movements in the history of classical and Western civilization, to make the primary source readings basic, and to commission their chairman to write a "handbook"—avoiding the taboo word "textbook"—which will give the running narrative and essential structuring with a minimum of interpretation. Through the use of this "handbook" the "inevitable disjointedness and fragmentation" of a course built up solely upon "selected readings" is avoided, yet the freshness of approach and the demands upon the students' analytical and synthesizing abilities provided by the new-style "source method" is maintained. Junior-college teachers who are interested in this approach may well look at the third edition of William H. McNeill's *History Handbook of Western Civilization* (University of Chicago Press, $4.50 paper cover), which has just appeared. For other approaches which fall into categories 2 and 3 above, the interested reader is referred to two articles in the *Journal of General Education* of 1952 (Ellsworth Faris, Jr., "Do We Want 'World History'?" and Helen S. Mims, "On General Education in Social Science at Harvard" in the July and October issues, respectively).

Marjorie Tallman's *Dictionary of Civics and Government* (New York: Philosophical Library, 1953. $5.00) is a useful addition to the high-school library for classes in government, social problems, and, to a lesser extent, United States history. It is more helpful for specifics (as "Brannan Plan," "Social Security Act") than for such key concepts as "federalism" (which is omitted, though "confederation" appears), or for "due process" or "Universal Military Training," which are treated too summarily. A listing of the "New Deal" agencies under their alphabetical abbreviations, perhaps with cross-references, would have made the work easier to use.

Two other recent publications will be valuable for classes in United States history. *Charters of Freedom* provides schools with readable facsimiles of the Declaration of Independence, the (original) Constitution of the United States, and the (U.S.) Bill of Rights, with a short editorial comment on each. The publication sells for $0.25 a copy, or in quantities of 500 or more, for $0.20 each. Checks or money orders should be made payable to the Treasurer of the United States and orders sent to the National Archives, Washington 25, D.C. A sixth edition of Walter Tulley's "The Presidential Recorder" (New London, Connecticut: Arthur C. Croft Publi-

cations. $1.00 for a minimum order of two copies, $0.50 for each additional copy) gives a mass of interesting data on our presidential elections from 1789 and on the successful contenders therein.

The "How To Do It" series

Much has been said and written about the responsibilities of the schools, and particularly of teachers of the social studies, to see that the curriculum provides an intelligent and honest treatment of some of the crucial controversial issues which divide our society. Of course we have long dealt in schools with such issues, though not always honestly or intelligently. Usually the weighting has been on the conventional or conservative side, more rarely liberal or radical. For those teachers who scorn both the way of avoidance and that of indoctrination, Number 14 of the "How To Do It" series of the National Council for the Social Studies will be most helpful. In *How To Handle Controversial Issues* Professor Richard E. Gross, of Florida State University, gives good counsel on the criteria for selecting controversial issues to be studied and on the classroom techniques appropriate to their use. His criteria may be summarized as follows:

1. Is this issue within the maturity level of the pupils?

2. Is this issue of interest to the pupils? Professor Gross then suggests that, if the issue meets the other six criteria satisfactorily, the teacher should stimulate proper motivation on the part of the students.

3. Is this issue socially significant and timely for this course and grade level? Here problems of vertical and horizontal articulation enter in if undesirable duplications and gaps are not to appear in the school's curriculum.

4. Is this issue one which the teacher feels he can handle successfully from a personal standpoint (either of preparation or of personal bias)?

5. Is this issue one for which we have or can obtain (in time) adequate study materials?

6. Is this an issue for which we have adequate time? Not much can be learned in one day's exchange of mutual ignorance.

7. Is this issue one which will clash (too greatly) with community customs and attitudes? To meet this problem Professor Gross suggests the use, on occasion, of a "backdoor approach" through analogous historical problems or the analogy of a less controversial group which illustrates the same principle, as Japanese-Americans to illustrate problems of ethnic minorities in the South.

Finally, this writer would indorse emphatically Professor Gross's admonition to teachers that, on some issues, the normal result will be, not complete consensus on policy by equally well-informed people, but compromise. Here Professor Gross suggests that "the teacher should help the groups to discover common elements and values which both accept." Further discussion will probably bring about sufficient modification of views so that each side will see more objectively the reasons for the opposition of the other to its favored policy. "This democratic means of the creative solution of conflict, characterized by the mutual reconstruction of differing points of view, needs to become a

common experience for all young people throughout their elementary- and secondary-school careers." And, one might add, most of us teachers will find such a process personally educative as well.

In this same series geography teachers, especially on the elementary-school level, will find relevant to their work Number 15, *How To Introduce Maps and Globes* by Gertrude Whipple, and all social-studies teachers can make use of Number 16, *How To Use Multiple Books* by Mary C. Wilson.

Education of social-studies teachers Recent innovations and current trends in the education of social-studies teachers are well summarized in *The Teacher of the Social Studies*, Twenty-third Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies edited by Jack Allen. In eight chapters, each with a short bibliography, are discussed the following topics: successful teaching (I. James Quillen); the preparation of elementary (Harold D. Drummond), secondary (Alice W. Spieseke), and college (Horace T. Morse) teachers; the social-studies classroom (Dorothy McClure Fraser); the teacher in school and community (Jonathan C. McLendon); professional growth (Edwin R. Carr and Robert G. Risinger); and professional activities (Merrill F. Hartshorn and Burr W. Phillips). Among the significant pace-setting developments heralded here are added emphasis in teacher education upon competently guided travel and upon work with children in out-of-school situations, the influence upon teacher preparation of general-education programs in the college curriculum and of broadened programs of graduate work, and the growing importance of the activities of social-studies councils on local, state, and national levels.

Lecture vs. discussion A refreshing and important contribution to the literature on the perennial issue of lectures versus discussion in collegiate education is reported by Professor Ben S. Bloom, of the Department of Education of the University of Chicago, in the *Journal of General Education* for April, 1953. Instead of following the usual procedure of testing to see what and how much was learned by students, Professor Bloom used the method of *stimulated recall* to get at the thoughts of students which occurred during lectures and discussions in selected classes (in large part in the social sciences) in the College of the University of Chicago. Through the use of recordings used within two days after the class had been held, Professor Bloom furnished cues which helped the students to recall their thoughts in the original situation. As a result of his checking of the recall of overt events, Professor Bloom concludes that "the accuracy of the recall of conscious thoughts is high enough for most studies of learning situations—if the interviews are made within a short time after the event."

From these studies Professor Bloom concludes that "the lecture is espe-

cially successful in securing the attention of students to what is being said" and that it "evokes primarily those thoughts which are appropriate to the following and comprehending of information, while the discussion is more successful in evoking complex problem-solving types of thought." However, the study shows also that the average discussion still has a long way to go to secure the maximal amount of problem-solving:

> All this suggests that if the objective of education is the development of knowledge about a topic or field, the lecture is a far more efficient method of communicating such knowledge and of securing the attention of students to these ideas than is the discussion. However, if the objective is the development of abilities and skills which are problem-solving in nature, the least efficient discussion is superior to most . . . lectures.

Such discrimination between means according to the ends to be served may have implications for both experimentation and practice on the high-school level, though such practice and experimentation might well be preceded by more precise definitions of *lecture* and of *discussion* than are often given the terms.

ROBERT E. KEOHANE
Shimer College

Who's Who for November

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by Robert E. Keohane, chairman of the Department of Social Sciences, Shimer College, Mount Carroll, Illinois. Warren C. Seyfert, associate professor of education, and director of the Laboratory School, at the University of Chicago, describes how the faculty of his school, through a variety of procedures, co-operatively helps to develop school policies and practices. Joseph Justman, research assistant at the Bureau of Educational Research of the New York City Board of Education, compares the personal and social adjustment of paired superior pupils in special-progress classes and in normal-progress classes. Leonard V. Koos, professor of education at the University of Chicago, in the second of two articles on junior high school reorganization, surveys the educational needs which the junior high school was designed to meet and the ways in which the school was set up to meet these needs. Thomas F. Hogan, social-studies teacher in the Grasmere School, Fairfield, Connecticut, describes the insights into word usage obtained by seventh- and eighth-grade pupils through a school Semantics Club. Frances Swineford, head of the Test Analysis Section of the Department of Statistical Analysis of the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, presents a list of selected references on statistics, the theory of test construction, and factor analysis.

Reviewers of books C. Leslie Cushman, associate superintendent of schools, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. John Withall, associate professor of education, University of Delaware. Edna Lue Furness, associate professor of education, University of Wyoming.

EXPERIENCES IN FACULTY SELF-DETERMINATION

WARREN C. SEYFERT
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How the faculty of one school co-operatively develops school policies and practices is described in this article. Few, if any, of the procedures employed are unique to the school, but the variety of methods employed is unusual. Because of this variety and because the collaborative approach seems to have been successful in one school, it may be that other schools can benefit from a sharing of its experiences.

The setting is the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago. The faculty numbers about seventy-five. The student body ranges from four-year-olds to tenth-graders. The administrative staff consists of the director and the assistant to the director. Unlike practice in many schools, there are no supervisors in the various instructional areas. As far as teaching load is concerned, teachers in the Laboratory School have more moderate assignments than those in many public schools, although the loads are by no means light. The climate of the school admittedly is favorable to collaborative work on the part of teachers. The climate alone is not enough: means of implementation must also be available.

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS UNDERLYING THE PLAN

Although it is unnecessary here to develop completely the reasons underlying the emphasis which is given to faculty self-determination in the Laboratory School, a statement of some of the basic assumptions is in order. The faculty of the school believes that (1) the worth of an idea is to be judged by its inherent validity rather than by the status of the person advancing it; (2) the pooling of ideas from a number of sources generally produces sounder conclusions than those any one person can develop; (3) implementation is more effective when the persons who are affected by a decision participate in making it; (4) leadership potential in a faculty is widespread rather than narrowly concentrated; (5) communication, which is essential to group action, is promoted by collaborative endeavor; (6) co-operative problem-solving is, generally speaking, the most productive means of quickening professional growth; and, last but not

least, (7) co-operative work can be "fun" for everyone.

Although it may seem from the foregoing and from what follows that the director of the Laboratory School is on a kind of extended professional leave of absence, he actually has a significant role to play, even though it differs in some respects from the role commonly played by the head of a school. He is expected to have ideas—and they had better be good ones. He is a co-ordinator, with the special responsibility of keeping all-school objectives in the forefront of faculty thinking. He is an expediter. He must be a decision-maker when faculty consensus cannot be obtained. Occasionally he must do some prodding.

ORGANIZATION OF LITTLE FACULTY GROUPS

Common experience demonstrates that a faculty as large as seventy-five teachers, covering the grades from kindergarten to Grade X, is too big and too heterogeneous to operate effectively as a group for most purposes. It can do some things, to be sure. For example, it can help to define professional problems; it can provide motivation and guidance for the activities of individuals and small groups; and it can review and act on recommendations which are brought to it. But it simply cannot function as a "working group" for most of the problems with which a faculty must cope. Groups smaller in size and less heterogeneous in the range of their professional responsibilities are needed.

As an aside, it may be noted that general faculty meetings in many schools are the cause of irritation to teachers and administrators alike, in part because those responsible for the meetings try to use them for purposes which are not suitable for so numerous and diverse a group. Merely having all the faculty in one room at one time gives no assurance that all-school interests will be promoted or that widespread involvement of the faculty in problem-solving activities will be secured. To be productive, a group of people, teachers in this case, must be of a size that makes participation by all really possible; the members of the group must have a common interest in whatever task or assignment brings them together; and the group must have authority to make decisions and carry them out.

A common recourse in schools, especially high schools, which are searching for smaller and more congenial working groups is some form of department organization. Departments do have their place in staff organization, but departmental organization has one evident limitation: the range of concern is unduly narrow. This is not said by way of condemnation; it is merely one of the facts of life. Furthermore, at the elementary-school level, departmental allegiances are weak or nonexistent. In the Laboratory School, therefore, it seemed neither possible nor wise to turn to departmental groups to provide more satisfactory faculty units.

Five years ago our staff, after con-

One informal but effective means of co-ordination consists in conferences between two faculty chairmen who have found that their faculties are working on common problems. This situation may come to light through the traditional grapevine, but more usually it is discovered when a chairman examines the minutes of the other three faculties. From such conferences may come joint staff meetings, special committees representing two or more faculties, and so on.

A more regular and formal basis for co-ordination among the Little Faculties is the general faculty's Policy Committee. This committee came into being some years ago to provide, as one of its functions, better communication and articulation between the administration and the teaching staff. With the maturing of the committee over the years, its role has been extended. Currently, perhaps its outstanding responsibility is to promote necessary and desirable interrelationships among the various recognized groups within the faculty.

So far as the Little Faculties are concerned, the machinery for developing co-ordination among them consists in having the four faculty chairmen as ex officio members of the Policy Committee. Problems which arise in any one of the faculties and which appear to need, or to be worthy of, broader consideration are frequently brought to the Policy Committee. That committee may then ask the other chairmen to consider the issues with their faculties. The implementation of decisions made by the Policy Committee is secured by relaying the request for action to the four faculties through their presiding officers.

The independent suspension of the front wheels on modern motor cars makes an interesting parallel at this point. The wheels are free to respond suitably to the variations in the road surface over which they run. At the same time, the major direction of their forward movement is determined by the chassis of the car and its steering mechanism. The Little Faculties are free to meet the special and local needs of the school areas from which they are drawn, but, at the same time, their activities are held together by the Policy Committee and other lines of contact.

The Policy Committee has other responsibilities besides co-ordinating the thinking and activities of the Little Faculties. It assists the director of the school by advising him on matters about which he must make decisions and by bringing to his attention reactions and suggestions from the faculty at large. It serves the faculty by calling the faculty's attention to problems and interests of individuals or groups; by tying together various activities of staff groups; by making decisions on behalf of the staff when time does not permit, or conditions do not require, the canvassing of the entire faculty; and by exercising leadership in developing plans for the faculty's professional study activities.

The Policy Committee has eight elected teacher members (although

legislation allows the number to increase or decrease slightly to avoid awkward or embarrassing circumstances, such as might occur when a member resigns from the faculty or balloting produces ties). As stated, four of the eight members are the chairmen of the four Little Faculties, and the other four are elected at large by the entire faculty. Except as the four chairmen are called upon to act as "communication devices," the committee members are not elected or expected to function as representatives of grades or departments; their effort is to think and act in the best interest of the entire school. The director customarily presides at meetings, and the assistant to the director serves as secretary. Neither is a voting member. It should be said, however, that voting, in the traditional sense of counting "Ayes" and "Nays" is a practice seldom indulged in. The minutes may record that the committee voted thus-and-so—a statement which means that a consensus was reached.

The Policy Committee meets regularly for an hour and a half or more in alternate weeks. The range of its interests and the extent to which it provides faculty determination of faculty action can be best illustrated by noting some of the items which appeared on its agenda during the past year:

Development of school policy on interscholastic activities for girls and for seventh- and eighth-grade boys
Improvement of the handling of the textbook library
Pressure of committee meetings on staff members
Safeguarding school and personal property
Planning staff conferences on sex-education program
Scheduling a curriculum work day
Setting schedule for staff meetings
Considering method for evaluating curriculum study program
Reviewing procedures and criteria for admission to school

There is no denying that, on many of the topics taken up by the Policy Committee, the administration has a position and states it as convincingly as possible. What is important, however, is that the honest intent of all concerned is to get the best possible answer for the school, and many times the director thinks he has such an answer but actually has not. While there probably is a legal provision that the head of the school has veto rights, it is the unwritten assumption that, on matters which the Policy Committee accepts as appropriate for its consideration, a group decision is better than that of any individual (including the director). There is no vetoing.

One more remark about the Policy Committee. The group has some of the aspects and functions of the common faculty "executive committee" and of the traditional principal's "cabinet." Yet its range of interest and responsibilities is greater than that of either of these. It is a powerful group, but the precedents which have developed call for the committee's taking no major action without consulting with the faculty or a relevant part thereof. The committee is relatively free to decide when a question is its business and to determine what

is to be done to carry out a decision it has come to. It operates with comparatively few rules and a handful of precedents. This flexible definition of the extent of such a committee's powers and its possibilities could be a source of distress to teachers and administration. If, however, it is assumed that the intention of the group is to act in the best interests of the school, giving the committee broad powers of self-determination seems the only rational thing to do.

SUPPLEMENTARY GROUPS

While much of the policy-making for the school is done through the two organizations which have been described—the Little Faculties and the Policy Committee—it is clear that they cannot satisfy all the needs which the faculty has. One supplementary set of staff groups consists of departmental units in the upper school (Grades VII–X), whose range of activities is that ordinarily associated with subject-field departments.

One important departure from usual practice is that department chairmen in the Laboratory School are chosen by their peers and each appointment is rotated among the membership at the decision of the group. (The precedent in most departments is a two-year term.) From this it can be inferred that the chairman is not an administrative or a supervisory officer but is a "manager" for the group. One significant effect of this arrangement is that within a department the members are more likely to think of each other as equals than they may when the chairman is a permanently appointed administrative officer. There may be some general limitations to such a plan and, on occasion, there are specific ones; but in our school, at least, the merits appear to outweigh the shortcomings.

A school cannot live by departments alone, and this will be especially true in an elementary school where a permanent departmental organization is either impossible or, if possible, a handicap to smooth operation. There are decisions to be made and responsibilities carried out which neither departments nor the other groups mentioned find appropriate. There are needs which transcend any or all instructional areas or which cut through the faculty on diagonal lines. For example, in the Laboratory School the five teachers and five assistants responsible for the first- and second-grade program meet one afternoon each week to share ideas and to make plans for the education of six- and seven-year olds. In the upper school the advisers at each grade level (ordinarily three teachers) meet on a regular schedule to discuss matters of all-grade importance. A committee consisting of teachers, parents, and students, called the School Life Committee, makes policy and guides practices for the social life of the school. Other faculty groups provide leadership in such matters as building-evacuation, social activities for the staff, and assemblies.

One other area of staff responsibil-

ity in the Laboratory School deserves attention. Each year for some time past, the entire faculty has been divided among a series of committees we call "curriculum study groups." In the strict sense, every faculty is concerned with some aspect of the curriculum, but what we have called curriculum study groups have customarily been set up to take a more extensive or comprehensive view of the instructional program than other existing committees seemed to be in a position to take.

These groups in the Laboratory School have two or three distinguishing features. In the first place, it has come to be taken for granted that every faculty member will belong to one such group each year. Whether such complete membership ought to continue is a question which the Policy Committee reviews each spring, but in recent years there has been agreement that participation to this extent is desirable.

Another characteristic of these groups is that they almost always have members drawn from the full range of the school's grades and instructional areas, although complete representation is never possible. Again, the problems or instructional areas to which the study groups apply their efforts are defined, at least broadly, by the Policy Committee, which bases its decisions on its appraisal of faculty interests and school needs. As with all other staff groups, there is an elected chairman who has a managerial responsibility. Periodically these chairmen meet with the Policy Committee to check progress, co-ordinate plans, and get advice on future steps. The important consideration here, however, is that each of the study groups is assumed to be capable of guiding itself in large measure.

The curriculum groups over the years have attacked a variety of problems, and it would not be especially helpful here to list them all. It may be useful, nonetheless, to mention a few instances to illustrate the flexible character of this plan of organization. Some years ago, for example, it appeared to all concerned that the staff needed a clearer understanding of what we meant by "good teaching." To meet that need, the faculty was divided into eight heterogeneous groups, each of which undertook first to write out a set of characteristics of a good learning experience. Through conferences among chairmen and other devices, a "definitive" statement for the entire school was eventually prepared. For the remainder of the year, the faculty, through the vehicle of the eight groups, examined its own activities in light of these criteria. Here, then, is an instance of the faculty's studying, in small groups, a single problem which they selected.

Two years ago it appeared to the faculty that we ought to give concentrated attention to our program in the area of communications. After careful deliberation and consultation, the Policy Committee proposed a series of groups to study certain aspects of the problem: communication skills, devel-

opmental reading, reading problems in content areas, basic literature, creative expression, and nonverbal communication. Since it was recognized that our activities in health education also needed examination, a health-education committee was established. As was said before, every teacher was a member of one of these committees, with assignments made by the Policy Committee, largely in the light of personal competences and interests, although other considerations were applied in a few cases.

During 1952–53 the study of essentially the same problems was continued, although immediate objectives were naturally modified. Some assignments were changed for a number of reasons. One committee was dropped. Finally, the upper-school teachers of social studies and mathematics were allowed to withdraw to make explorations in anticipation of a later, more intensive study of these areas.

At its meeting at the close of the last school year, the Policy Committee assessed the progress of our curriculum groups and recommended to the faculty that we shift our attention in the fall. There will be small standby committees to follow the implementation of last year's findings. Then everyone in the school concerned with the social-studies program will be organized to begin a school-wide revision of this field. The mathematics department will continue its explorations. The physical-education department will be given time to consolidate the thinking and planning it has been carrying on. In this design the faculty is exercising the reasonable alternative of using certain existing groups to promote particular interests.

FACULTY PARTICIPATION INCREASED BY THE PLAN

With the possible exception of the department groups, all others that have been mentioned have come into existence in response to the faculty's recognition of problems which need solving. More than that, the urge to set up faculty committees rather than to turn to the administration for solution has grown as the faculty has acquired skill and satisfaction from participating deeply in problem-solving for the school. Again, the particular pattern of current staff organization is the consequence of the faculty's giving thought, not only to pressing problems, but also to the best methods of marshaling the resources of the staff to deal with these problems. One outcome of this concern with method as well as with the task to be accomplished has been the development of what seems to be a comfortable mixture of stability of pattern and flexibility to meet the new or the unforeseen.

The faculty of the Laboratory School at the University of Chicago would be the last to claim that it had found the perfect vehicle for staff participation in the life of the school or that it had identified the ideal level for such participation. Moreover, we

have not surmounted the barriers of insufficient time and other such practical considerations. We recognize varying degrees of skills among our colleagues so far as effective participation is concerned. We know that a committee structure can get in the way of effective communication as well as expedite it. But for all of these and other shortcomings, we are certain that we get better and more convincing solutions to our problems than we would get with a lesser degree of faculty self-determination, and better solutions are what we want. As this pattern of participation has grown, we have also seen the individual teacher grow in his interest in, and active concern for, the rest of the school which is out of sight of his or her classroom door.

CONCLUDING COMMENT

In closing, one disclaimer is in order. It has been said that such success as we have had in the area of staff participation is to be explained mainly by the quality of the people on the faculty. They are outstanding teachers. The university environment may have some subtle influence on us. We do have our peculiarities, as every school has. But with all of this, the only basic considerations are a point of view and a reasonable determination to be guided by that point of view. These are available to every school in the land.

PERSONAL AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT OF INTELLECTUALLY GIFTED ACCELERANTS AND NON-ACCELERANTS IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

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*

VARIOUS DEVICES have been adopted throughout the United States to enable the gifted pupil to progress through the grades more rapidly. The most widely used plan, and the most simple to utilize from an administrative point of view, is double promotion, or grade-skipping. Many communities have instituted multiple-track programs, while others have installed modifications of the Dalton and Winnetka plans as a means of providing for the very superior child. In New York City, as one way of meeting the challenge presented by such children, we have formed special classes in which intellectually gifted pupils complete the normal span of junior high school work in two, rather than three, years. Such classes enrol children with intelligence quotients of 130 and over who show superior academic achievement. Pupils selected for admission must also possess personal characteristics of initiative, enthusiasm, willingness to work, reliability, regular attendance, and capacity for sustained work.

Underlying the introduction of such special-progress classes in the New York City schools is the assumption that homogeneous groups constitute a better approach to providing a school program which will meet the needs of intellectually gifted pupils than do the more common heterogeneous groups. It has been felt not only that the special class will serve as a medium for stimulating pupils to better academic achievement but that the formation of such groups will make it possible for the school to stimulate the development by pupils of a broad range of interests and to foster the inculcation of sound civic and social attitudes.

Another reason advanced for the organization of special classes grows out of the school's increasing concern with helping pupils to attain better personal and social adjustment. It has been felt that the very superior child, who functions on a level so much higher than that of his less intelligent classmates, will find it difficult to enter into the normal give-and-take of the usual classroom. The gifted child, the argument runs, will find the climate of a special class composed of his intellectual peers more conducive to the de-

velopment of personal and social adequacy.

The present study seeks to assess the part that the special-progress class plays in furthering the personal and social adjustment of intellectually gifted pupils. To be sure, a complete evaluation of the role of such classes in fostering personal and social adjustment would entail a thorough clinical study, requiring a considerable investment in time and psychological personnel. The large number of pupils included in this study made it impossible to undertake a comprehensive evaluation of the adjustment of each child. Rather, group measures of personal and social adjustment, including a standardized group test of personality and a series of sociometric measures, were used.

SUBJECTS OF THE STUDY

Many pupils with intelligence quotients of 130 or higher were denied admission to the special-progress groups because they did not show the necessary academic attainment or because, in the judgment of their teachers, they did not possess the required personal characteristics. In some instances poor attendance, and in others parental disapproval of a program of acceleration, resulted in retention of otherwise acceptable special-progress candidates in normal-progress classes. Thus, it was possible to identify pupils in normal-progress classes who met some or all of the standards set for admission to special-progress groups.

The basic approach utilized in this study involved a comparison of matched pairs of intellectually gifted pupils drawn from special-progress and from normal-progress classes. Pupils were matched on the following bases: school attended, grade, sex, chronological age, mental age, and intelligence quotient. The Pintner General Ability Test, Intermediate Test, Form B, was utilized as the measure of intellectual status. Groups of ninety-five matched pairs of special-progress and normal-progress pupils were formed, drawn from eleven special-progress and eleven normal-progress classes in nine junior high schools located in comparable middle-class neighborhoods in New York City.

The mean chronological age of the matched pupil pairs in the special-progress and normal-progress groups was 11 years and 10 months. The mean mental ages for the two groups were 15 years and 10.9 months and 15 years and 9.8 months, respectively; the mean intelligence quotients, 134.4 and 134.1, respectively. The differences between the two groups were extremely small, and none was statistically significant.

APPRAISAL INSTRUMENTS

Sociometric techniques lend themselves readily to the determination of pupil status and interrelations in the classroom situation. Three sociometric approaches were utilized in the present study.

1. A Friendship Nomination technique, in which each pupil was asked to select the three classmates he liked best and the three he liked least.

2. A modified form of the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale, Advanced Series. This approach asked each pupil to rate his classmates on a five-point scale, in which the following scale values were to be used to designate ratings: *1*—Very, very best friends; *2*—Good friends; *3*—Not friends, but okay; *4*—Don't know them; *5*—Not okay. Experience has indicated that the values assigned to pupils in a class may be looked upon as points on a continuum.

3. "Casting Characters for Class Plays," a variant of the "Guess Who" test, in which each pupil in the classes surveyed was asked to select a classmate to act a given role in a class play. Twelve characters were described, and the pupil was asked to indicate "the one classmate you think is best suited for each part because he (or she) is just that way naturally." In actuality, the descriptions given could be classified as representing positive or negative traits:

> "Someone who is always in good humor, who smiles or laughs a good deal; who makes others happy."
>
> "Someone who is snobbish and conceited; who feels superior to others; who likes to order others around."

Six positive characterizations (happy, cooperative, leader, dependable, friendly, and outstanding) and six negative characterizations (shy, snobbish, poor loser, bookworm, unhappy, and "show-off") were developed to comprise the total scale.

In order to secure a measure of the personal functioning of the matched groups, the California Test of Personality, Intermediate Series, was used. This test is divided into two sections: Section I, Self Adjustment, purports to indicate how the pupil feels about himself—his self-reliance, his estimate of his own personal worth, his sense of personal freedom, and his feeling of belonging. In addition, an attempt is made to detemine the pupil's freedom from withdrawing tendencies and nervous symptoms. Section II, Social Adjustment, seeks to indicate how the pupil functions as a social being—his knowledge of social standards; his social skills; his freedom from antisocial tendencies; and his family, school, and community relations.

FINDINGS

Two groups of 95 intellectually gifted pupils, one drawn from a total group of 418 pupils enrolled in 11 "special-progress classes," and one drawn from a total group of 397 pupils enrolled in 11 "normal-progress classes," were compared by means of sociometric techniques. In the discussion which follows, the first of these groups is referred to as the "special-progress in-group," while the second is referred to as the "normal-progress in-group." The remaining pupils comprising the total group are referred to as the "special-progress out-group" and the "normal-progress out-group," respectively. Through comparing the responses of these four groups, insights can be developed concerning the adjustment of intellectually gifted pupils enrolled in special-progress classes composed of their intellectual peers as contrasted with the adjustment of similar pupils attending normal-progress classes, which enrol a large number of less gifted children.

1. *Friendship Nominations.*—One of the questions that might be raised concerning the social adjustment of intellectually gifted pupils is: "Will intellectually gifted pupils be accepted by classmates more readily when attending classes composed of

their intellectual peers than they will be in classes enrolling, for the most part, normal-progress pupils?"

The Friendship Nominations made by the pupils in both types of classes provide a partial answer to the question. Table 1 presents a summary of the number and per cent of "best-liked" and "least-liked" choices directed to in-group pupils enrolled in special-progress and in normal-progress classes.

TABLE 1

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF "BEST-LIKED" AND "LEAST-LIKED" CHOICES DIRECTED TO IN-GROUPS IN SPECIAL-PROGRESS AND IN NORMAL-PROGRESS CLASSES (FRIENDSHIP NOMINATIONS)

Group and Choices	Best-liked Choices				Least-liked Choices			
	Special-Progress Classes		Normal-Progress Classes		Special-Progress Classes		Normal-Progress Classes	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Pupils in total group	418	100.0	397	100.0	418	100.0	397	100.0
Pupils in in-group	95	22.7	95	23.9	95	22.7	95	23.9
Possible choices, total group	1,254	100.0	1,191	100.0	1,254	100.0	1,191	100.0
Choices directed to in-group by total group	274	21.9	278	23.3	213	17.0	259	21.7*
Possible choices, out-group	969	100.0	906	100.0	969	100.0	906	100.0
Choices directed to in-group by out-group	212	21.9	217	24.0	174	18.0	203	22.4†
Possible choices, in-group	285	100.0	285	100.0	285	100.0	285	100.0
Choices directed to in-group by in-group	62	21.8	61	21.4	39	13.7	56	19.7

* Significantly different from paired per cent at .01 level.
† Significantly different from paired per cent at .05 level.

The per cent of choices, both as "best-liked" and "least-liked," directed to the in-groups enrolled in normal-progress classes is generally slightly higher than that of choices directed to the in-groups attending special-progress classes. Statistical analysis reveals that the small difference in per cent of "best-liked" choices directed to the in-groups drawn from special-progress and normal-progress classes is not significant. However, the per cent of "least-liked" choices directed to the in-group drawn from normal-progress classes by members of the total group proves to be significantly greater than that directed to the in-group drawn from special-progress classes. This significant difference may be attributed, in large measure, to the choices made by members of the out-group. The indications are, then, that pupils who meet the intelligence-test standards for admission to special-progress classes and who remain in normal-progress classes are somewhat less acceptable to their classmates than their matched pairs

tained scores point to a slightly higher degree of mutual acceptability of in-group and out-group members in special-progress classes, no definitive difference can be established between groups drawn from special-progress and from normal-progress classes.

3. *"Casting Characters."*—The use of the "Casting Characters for Class Plays" technique provides a third approach to the assessment of social adjustment. It will be remembered that the scale designates six positive and six negative roles for which each pupil is to select a classmate. Table 5 presents a summary of the number and per cent of choices for positive and negative roles directed to in-group pupils enrolled in both types of classes.

TABLE 5

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF CHOICES FOR POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE ROLES DIRECTED TO IN-GROUPS IN SPECIAL-PROGRESS AND NORMAL-PROGRESS CLASSES

Choices	Positive Roles				Negative Roles			
	Special-Progress Classes		Normal-Progress Classes		Special-Progress Classes		Normal-Progress Classes	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Made by total group	2,229	100.0	2,268	100.0	2,155	100.0	2,196	100.0
Directed to in-group	529	23.7	599	26.4*	488	22.6	457	20.8
Made by out-group	1,658	100.0	1,734	100.0	1,613	100.0	1,683	100.0
Directed to in-group	401	24.2	465	26.8	360	22.3	362	21.5
Made by in-group	571	100.0	534	100.0	542	100.0	513	100.0
Directed to in-group	128	22.4	134	25.1	88	16.2	95	18.5

* Significantly different from paired per cent at .05 level.

The per cent of positive choices directed to members of the in-group by the total group of which it is a part is smaller in the group of pupils enrolled in special-progress classes than it is in the group drawn from normal-progress classes. Moreover, the per cent of choices to play positive roles which is directed to special-progress in-group members by both in-group and out-group members is smaller than that directed to in-group members enrolled in normal-progress classes. When choices to play positive roles are used as a criterion, the more favorable picture is noted in normal-progress rather than in special-progress classes.

When choices to portray negative roles are considered, minor differences appear in the per cent of choices directed to members of the in-groups by the total group of special-progress or of normal-progress pupils. However, the per cent of choices to play negative roles which is directed to in-group members by out-group members is slightly smaller in the normal-progress

rather than in the special-progress classes, while the per cent of such choices directed to in-group members is greater in the group of pupils drawn from normal-progress rather than from special-progress classes. Therefore, when choices to play negative roles are used as a criterion, the group of normal-progress pupils is again placed in the more favorable light.

In order to test the generalizations advanced, the observed differences between special-progress groups and normal-progress groups were examined for statistical significance. Only one of the observed differences proved to be significant. Thus, the per cent of choices to play positive roles directed to in-group members drawn from normal-progress classes by the total group of which it is a part is significantly greater than that directed to in-group members attending special-progress classes. In some measure, this difference may be looked upon as the outgrowth of differences in choices directed to in-group members on the part of their respective out-groups. No significant differences appear when choices to play negative roles are considered. The results of this analysis may be offered as partial confirmation of the generalization advanced above: when the "Casting Characters" approach is used as a criterion, intellectually gifted children attending normal-progress classes tend to show better social adjustment than their counterparts enrolled in special-progress classes.

In order to cast further light upon the differences between the two groups, the number and per cent of choices for *each* positive and negative role directed to in-group members enrolled in special-progress and in normal-progress classes was determined. The differences between groups were found to be rather small. Only four of the obtained differences between groups (all found for negative roles) proved to reach a statistically significant level. Although the per cent of total choices to play positive roles directed to normal-progress in-group members by the total group of which it is a part was significantly greater than the per cent directed to special-progress in-group members, this difference cannot be attributed to a consistent tendency to select in-group members to play a given role in one type of class as opposed to another.

The total choices for negative roles failed to give rise to significant differences between groups. Two significant differences appeared when individual roles were considered. Thus, in comparison to choices of pupils in normal-progress groups, a significantly larger per cent of the choices of total groups attending special-progress classes (4.17) in comparison with choices of pupils in normal-progress classes (2.68) characterize in-group members as "shy." A significantly larger per cent of the choices of the total groups attending normal-progress classes (4.78) designate in-group members as "bookworms" as compared with the corresponding per cent of special-progress classes (3.15). In

both instances, the significant differences could be attributed to the choices made by the respective outgroups.

4. *The California Test of Personality.*—For the most part, there was little difference in the functioning of the two groups as revealed by an analysis of the results obtained by seventy-nine matched special-progress and normal-progress pupils on the California Test of Personality. In only one subsection of the test did a significant difference appear. The mean score of pupils enrolled in normal-progress classes (12.95) proved to be significantly higher than that of their counterparts enrolled in special-progress classes (12.29) on the section of the test purporting to measure adjustment in community relations. Since this subsection of the test contains only fifteen items and the obtained difference is less than one raw-score unit, the psychological significance of the obtained difference may well be questioned. It is quite evident that similarities in functioning of pupils on the test in question far outweigh such minor differences as do appear and that, for all practical purposes, the personal adjustment of the two groups of pupils may be considered equivalent.

It was felt that an examination of the individual items of the test should be undertaken in order to determine whether additional insights concerning the functioning of the two groups might be developed. The per cent of each group of pupils giving a "favorable" (well-adjusted) response to each item of the test was determined. In general, differences in the per cents of pupils in each group responding favorably to the separate items were relatively small. Actually, the differences reached a statistically significant level in only 17 of the 180 items comprising the total test. In four instances, items to which a significantly larger per cent of normal-progress pupils responded favorably deal with community relations. Three additional discriminating items, all of which tended to favor the normal-progress group, centered in the sense of personal freedom which the pupils have developed.

Another approach to the assessment of the personal adjustment of the pupils made use of sociometric instruments in conjunction with the California Test of Personality. Previous experience with the measures has indicated that low scores on the latter test, combined with rejection as a friend by other classmates and with the nomination to serve as one or more of the less desirable characters in the class play is diagnostic of maladjustment.[2] In order to identify the specific pupils who might be considered maladjusted, the following criteria were applied:

1. A score on the California Test of Personality below the fiftieth percentile.

[2] J. Wayne Wrightstone, "Assessing Pupil Adjustment by Self-descriptive and Sociometric Technics," *Growing Points in Educational Research*, pp. 330–35. Official Report of the American Educational Research Association, 1949. Washington 6: American Educational Research Association, 1949.

2. Rejection by more than three classmates on the Friendship Nomination technique.
3. An average score of 3.50 or higher on the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale.
4. Being chosen as an undesirable character in "Casting Characters for Class Plays" in two or more instances.

Table 6 presents a summary of the number and per cent of pupils in the special-progress and normal-progress groups who would be considered maladjusted if the first criterion were applied singly and if it were applied in combination with the other three criteria. When any one of the comparisons is considered, differences between the two groups are relatively small. Upon analysis, it is evident that the minor differences between the two groups may be attributed to chance factors. If the approach utilized may be looked upon as an adequate measure of personal adjustment, it is safe to say that the two groups show approximately equivalent functioning.

TABLE 6

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF MALADJUSTED PUPILS AMONG SEVENTY-NINE MATCHED PAIRS IN SPECIAL-PROGRESS AND NORMAL-PROGRESS CLASSES

Criterion	Special-Progress Classes		Normal-Progress Classes	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
California Test of Personality	22	27.8	19	24.1
California Test plus:				
Friendship Nominations	4	5.1	6	7.6
Ohio Social Acceptance Scale	8	10.1	8	10.1
Casting Characters for Class Play	6	7.6	2	2.5
Two other criteria	4	5.1	5	6.3

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The results obtained through the use of the sociometric instruments prove to be inconclusive of differences in functioning and adjustment of pupils in special-progress and in normal-progress groups. In only a few instances do the obtained differences between the contrasted groups reach a statistically significant level. Thus, intellectually gifted children attending normal-progress classes are chosen as "least-liked" to a significantly greater extent than their matched pairs enrolled in special-progress groups. Moreover, this lower degree of acceptability is determined by the greater rejection of such potential special-progress class members on the part of their less intelligent classmates. On the other hand, the per cent of choices to play positive roles depicted in the "Casting Characters" instrument which are directed to intellectually gifted children enrolled in normal-progress classes by the total normal-progress group is significantly greater than that directed to matched pairs drawn from special-progress groups.

In spite of this difference, however, there appears to be no consistent tendency to select intellectually gifted children to play a given positive role in normal-progress classes. Rather, the term "bookworm" is applied to such children by their less able classmates

to a greater degree than it is to a group of matched pupils enrolled in special-progress classes by their intellectual peers. Apparently, then, the lower degree of acceptability characteristic of the group of intellectually gifted pupils enrolled in normal-progress classes may be attributed, in some measure, to their greater preoccupation with what their less intelligent classmates feel are bookish pursuits.

This finding leads a person to wonder what the role of the teacher of such heterogeneous groups has been. Has he tended, through his organization of learning activities in the classroom, to emphasize just those aspects of the gifted child's equipment which will cause him to lose face among his classmates? Has he stressed individual achievement to such a degree that he has lost sight of the importance of developing a sound group feeling?

One must be careful, however, not to belabor these differences between the two groups unduly. It must be emphasized that similarity in functioning on the part of the two groups of pupils is far more characteristic than difference. In general, there appears to be little difference in the personal and social adjustment of matched groups of intellectually gifted pupils drawn from special-progress and from normal-progress classes. The indications are, then, that failure to place gifted pupils in homogeneously organized groups will not be reflected in less adequate personal and social adjustment, nor will such placement be associated with greater personal and social adequacy.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL REORGANIZATION AFTER A HALF-CENTURY

II. Purposes of, and Grade-Grouping for, Reorganization

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*

A PREVIOUS ARTICLE considered the growth and status of the junior high school reorganization movement over the last fifty years.[1] The present article goes on to describe the purposes of reorganization and considers grade-grouping as a feature of this reorganization.

OBSOLESCENT AND ABIDING PURPOSES

A movement of the magnitude manifested in the rapid growth and predominant status of junior high school reorganization could not have flourished without the intense pressure of many and diverse educational needs not being met in the upper elementary-school and lower high-school grades as conventionally organized. As reorganization to meet the needs proceeded, the needs were reflected in claims made on behalf of the reorganized schools. The claims, in turn, were readily transmutable, through validation by speculation, or by objective inquiry, or by both, into what were often referred to as the special purposes, or "peculiar functions," of the junior high school. Examination of the early literature discloses a welter of these presumed-to-be distinctive purposes of the new unit in school organization.

Among the potent factors conditioning or modifying purposes at any school level must be social and economic trends. Certain of these trends during the half-century since the inception of the idea of the junior high school have been such as to discredit some of the early claims and purposes. Instances in point may be cited.

The period of first advocacy of junior high school reorganization was one during which there was large-scale elimination from school, notably heaviest in the particular grades included in the junior high school. It was only natural that one of the purposes claimed for reorganization would be "better retention" in school. Everyone is aware of the forces and trends that have, in the meantime, made for a longer period of school attendance. It is likely that the junior high school has helped to lengthen the period of

[1] Part I of this article describing "Growth and Status of Reorganization," appeared in the October, 1953, issue of the School Review.

schooling, but we may be sure that social trends outside the school have been more influential than the school itself.

Again, a purpose of early advocacy for the junior high school was vocational education. The advocacy stemmed from an awareness of the fact that children dropped out of school during these school years and sought employment without having been prepared for it. Technological trends, with the accompanying lengthening of the period of compulsory schooling, have in the meantime excluded youth of these ages from employment and raised above junior high school years the level at which vocational education is appropriate.

Thinking along these lines has persuaded certain writers in recent years to contend that the junior high school is without distinctive purposes. Thus, says one educationist, after citing instances of disappearing functions akin to those mentioned in the preceding paragraphs: "We are forced to conclude that, by and large, the junior high school is merely a convenient administrative unit which has few, if any, distinctive functions and little psychological justification."[2] Significantly, the same writer goes on to say that, "even though the junior high school as a distinctive unit has not fully demonstrated its worth, the *problem of developing a satisfactory curriculum for the early adolescent still remains.*"[3]

In a somewhat similar vein, another writer, himself in charge of a junior high school in a large city school system, asserts: "Most of the functions formulated during the campaign years when the junior high school was the subject of disputation have been outmoded in one way or another."[4] At the same time, while discrediting "peculiar functions" of the junior high school, the same writer speaks of "obligations" of the unit, "which are generally recognized today," among which he mentions "guidance," "exploration," "adaptation to individual differences," and "subject-matter integration." These "obligations" differ hardly at all from purposes advocated for the junior high school over practically its full period of existence.

TWO INQUIRIES INTO PURPOSES

While assertions by individuals as to what should or should not be regarded as purposes of junior high school education are frequently encountered in recent and current literature, few studies to establish or disestablish them have been made and reported. Outcomes of two studies will be mentioned here.

One was made by Howell,[5] who submitted to "more than a hundred selected junior high school administrators" a list of forty-five "original

[2] Harold Alberty, "Reorganizing the Junior High School Curriculum," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIX, (April, 1945), 18.

[3] *Loc. cit.* Italics not in the original.

[4] M. E. Herriott, "The Junior High Schools of California," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVI (December, 1941), 460–64.

[5] Clarence E. Howell, "Junior High: How Valid Are Its Original Aims?" *Clearing House*, XXIII (October, 1948), 75–78.

aims" of the junior high school, which had been compiled from a "voluminous study of junior high school texts and articles dealing with the subject from the time the junior high school was conceived." The respondents had been asked to indicate which of the aims were "(1) As valid as ever," "(2) Less valid than before," "(3) [of] No special value," and "(4) No longer valid." In presenting the outcomes of his inquiry in tabular form, the author says, ". . . we may well conclude that the original aims and purposes . . . are still valid and acceptable with only a modicum of change." This opinion of persistence may be illustrated by pointing out that the aims indicated by 90 per cent or more of the respondents as being "as valid as ever" were:

To provide a suitable enviroment for children 12–16 years of age.
Exploring interests, abilities, and aptitudes of those ages.
Adapting training and education to individual interests and needs.
To help the individual find himself.
Caring for individual differences in the various subjects.
Special care for retarded pupils.
Participation of pupils in school governmental activities.
Physical diagnosis and remedial work for individuals.

It may be too obvious to mention that within these illustrations are comprehended the time-honored functions of recognition of the nature of the child at adolescence, guidance, exploration, and provision for individual differences.

The second study cited here is one reported by Gruhn and Douglass[6] in their book on the junior high school. This study involved submission of a tentative formulation of six functions to "a selected group of specialists in the theory and philosophy of the junior high school." The respondents were asked to indicate whether, in their opinions, each tentative item is a "major function," a "minor function," or "not a function." Three of these items, namely "exploration," "guidance," and "differentiation," received the approval, in at least one important aspect, of all respondents. Most other items, namely, "integration," "socialization," and "articulation," approached unanimous approval. The list submitted to the specialists included no reference to the junior high school as serving the needs of early adolescents, although the authors admit that "no one today would quarrel with that as a purpose of the junior high school." They think that the "concept is so broad and all-inclusive that it has little value as a statement of function."[7]

Any review of literature dealing with junior high school reorganization inevitably reveals that the purpose of serving the needs of youth during early adolescence has been prominent from the beginning a half-century or so ago. One person who early directed attention to these needs was G. Stanley Hall, whose two-volume work *Adolescence* was published in 1904. Investigative procedures used by

[6] William T. Gruhn and Harl R. Douglass, *The Modern Junior High School*, chap. iii. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1947.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 56.

Hall, and, in consequence, some of his conclusions concerning the nature and changes at adolescence, were subsequently questioned, and some critics went so far as to deny changes of sufficient moment to justify important modifications of the educational program to meet the needs of youth. However, investigation of the physical, social and emotional, and intellectual nature of youth, together with the needs represented, has been continued and enlarged over the years and has increasingly underwritten the need for an educational program taking cognizance of this nature.

Careful examination of the educational implications for early adolescence in any of the better recent treatises on the psychology of adolescence should bring conviction on this score. One of the most revealing recent compilations in this connection is to be found in *Guides to Curriculum Building: The Junior High School Level*,[8] which was prepared by the Wisconsin Cooperative Educational Planning Program. This compilation includes a systematic portrayal of the known physical, social and emotional, and intellectual characteristics of children of junior high school age; the pupil needs indicated by these characteristics; and "what the school can do" to meet the needs. Scrutiny of the portrayal can hardly fail to convince that a major and special responsibility of the school at this level is the recognition of the nature of the child at adolescence and that adequate recognition is impossible without large-scale modification of the programs and regimens characteristic of later grades of the eight-year elementary school and first years of the four-year high school.

The compilation just mentioned convinces the reader not only of the all-pervasive purpose of recognizing early adolescent nature but also of the relevancy of the other purposes recurrently assigned to junior high school reorganization. The testimony concerning individual differences[9] leaves no room for denying that differentiation on an increasing scale is essential at this level. The need for exploration is made explicit in the indication of "social experience in groups" as an important part of the program, the "amazing intellectual curiosity" in this age group, the "increased interest on the part of boys and girls in . . . vocational plans,"[10] and elsewhere. The need for guidance in other than exploratory aspects is explicit at many other points in the compilation. In a sense, these additional purposes are corollary to the all-pervasive function, or they may be regarded as important phases of it. The need for performing these and other corollary functions is reinforced by many of the "social pressures influencing junior high school youth" which are identified in another section of the compilation.[11]

[8] Reprinted with permission by the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, Bulletin No. 8, Circular Series A, No. 51. Springfield, Illinois: Vernon L. Nickell, Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1950.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 61 and elsewhere.

[10] *Ibid.*, pp. 48, 60, 67.

[11] *Ibid.*, chap. iii.

THE SENSE OF DISTINCTIVENESS

An issue has sometimes been raised concerning the "peculiarity," or distinctiveness, during the early years of the movement often claimed for these functions ascribed to junior high school reorganization. They were often designated as "peculiar functions" as if they applied (1) only to this particular span of grades and (2) even to these grades in reorganized schools in contrast with corresponding grades in schools in the traditional (8–4) organization. Clearly, the only purpose, whatever may have formerly been claimed, peculiar to the *level* is that pertaining to the nature of the child early during adolescence. The others, like guidance and provision for individual differences, are hardly less applicable to school levels above and below. This is not to say that the junior high school has not rendered an inestimable service to all levels of education by being the leaven by means of which these other functions have become popularized and thus encouraged in application to other school levels.

The question of whether or not the all-pervasive purpose of recognizing the nature of youth during early adolescence is peculiar to reorganized as compared with unreorganized schools must have its answer in what schools of these two main patterns of organization can and do accomplish. Implications of some of the evidence in subsequent sections of this article are that, unfortunately, the unreorganized schools cannot hope to compete with reorganized schools in serving either the all-pervasive purpose or the corollary purposes.

GRADE-GROUPING FOR REORGANIZATION

Review of the purposes of reorganization is logically followed by consideration of what have usually been referred to as its "features." These are nothing more than the arrangements introduced for achieving the functions of the reorganized school, such as the program of studies (or curriculum organization); departmentalization or other plan of instructional assignment; the program of provisions for individual differences; the advisory, or guidance, program; and the social, or extra-class, organization and activities. With these features is sometimes included also the grade-grouping in reorganization, since different grade-groupings may achieve the functions in varying degrees. Whether or not the pattern of grades in reorganization is included among the features, it has always seemed desirable to accord it prior or early consideration.

Because certain facts bearing on grade-grouping in reorganization have already been presented, it remains largely to summarize any novel proposals in the recent literature and to abstract findings of certain of the inquiries indicative of preference for some patterns of organization as compared with others.

Examination of recent educational literature discloses only a few proposals for grade-groupings for reorganization differing notably from the patterns recurrent in the picture of

growth and status as reported in the first article in this series. A few articles describe or advocate a 7–5 pattern, that is, an elementary school of seven grades followed by a five-year high school. A number of systems, just how many is not known, have moved to this pattern, a minority of them from the 6–3–3 pattern with separate junior and senior high schools. The remainder are mainly in certain states of the South, formerly on the 7–4 plan, that have added, in various ways, a year to the four-year high school.

One writer, following experience in a five-year school and after having listed some of the frequently mentioned objections to the six-year school, stated that "90 per cent of the valid objections to the combined [junior-senior high] school are removed when the seventh grade is not included."[12] The objections mentioned were clustered around the association of immature with somewhat more mature youth. Another writer, discussing the problem of organization for the state of Washington, mentions a "feeling among many administrators" favorable to an elementary school of seven grades and a consideration, in schools too small to extend the program beyond Grade XII, of the 7–5 plan.[13] Neither of these writers takes cognizance of the time of onset of puberty and other facts concerning early adolescence that lend support to the practice of including Grade VII in the reorganized secondary school.

A pattern of organization frequently advocated in recent literature is the 6–4–4 plan, applicable in systems being extended to include the two junior-college years. A digest of evidence giving grounds for preference for the lower four-year secondary school unit as compared with the three-year junior high school is presented below.

The junior high school movement was well under way before efforts at comparative appraisal of reorganized and unreorganized schools were made and reported. The typical finding of such studies may be illustrated by what was perhaps the main conclusion from one made by Beatley.[14] From the administration of achievement tests in the conventional school subjects to pupils in Grades VII, VIII, and IX in reorganized and unreorganized systems in New England, Beatley found that the gains made during the school year did not differ markedly. Greater gains by one group in some subjects were offset by greater gains by the other group in other subjects, from which one might conclude that the gains in reorganized and unreorganized schools were roughly equal. However, analysis of the schedules of the schools made it clear that this equivalence was attained in the reorganized schools by devoting less time to

[12] L. P. Farris, "Compensating Values of a Five-Year School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVI (December, 1941), 470–72.

[13] Thomas R. Cole, "What Grades Should Constitute the Junior High School?" *American School Board Journal*, CXII (February, 1946), 42.

[14] Bancroft Beatley, *Achievement in the Junior High School*. Harvard Studies in Education, Vol. XVIII. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1932.

the conventional subjects and devoting the remaining time to subjects other than those represented in the tests, such as the social studies, science, fine and practical arts, and the like. Besides, the reorganized schools gave more time to extra-class activities. Thus, the major conclusion is that the pupil in the reorganized school did no less well in the tool subjects at the same time that he was experiencing the greater enrichment afforded by a broader program.

While such investigations demonstrated the superiority of junior high school reorganization, they did not answer the question of which pattern of grade-grouping is preferable. In this connection it is unfortunate that the findings of the reorganization project of the National Survey of Secondary Education were not more extensively publicized. This project undertook to throw light not only on the question of whether reorganized schools are better than unreorganized schools but also on which of the then current patterns of reorganization were preferable. The procedure devised by Spaulding and Frederick and followed in that extensive investigation involved the identification of nine "features" of organization in large numbers of schools of the different patterns of organization. Measures of "comprehensiveness" and of "consistency" of organization were obtained for individual schools and for the groups of schools. The assumption in the procedure was that schools with the most comprehensive and consistent setup of features can best render service to youth.

The groups of schools represented in Spaulding and Frederick's comparison were the separate 3-year junior high schools, 3-year senior high schools, junior-senior high schools on a 3–3 basis, undivided 6-year schools, 2-year junior high schools with 4-year senior high schools, and the two highest elementary grades (VII–VIII) and the 4-year high schools in systems on the 8–4 plan. The following paragraph summarizes the investigators' conclusions:

> When schools of the various common types are rated in terms of the comprehensiveness and consistency of their internal organizations, the undivided 6-year schools and the junior-senior high schools organized on a 6–3–3 basis stand out above all the other types. The separate 3-year junior and senior high schools seem to owe whatever advantage they obtain largely, though not entirely, to the size of their enrolments. Unreorganized schools prove superior in comprehensiveness of organization to the 2-year and 4-year reorganized schools; they are unsuccessful, however, in achieving a consistency of organization comparable to that of the reorganized schools.[15]

The writer recalls that, when this conclusion of the superiority in organization of the 3–3 and 6-year undivided schools over the separate junior and senior schools was first reported, there was considerable remonstrance and resistance to it, particu-

[15] Francis T. Spaulding, O. I. Frederick, and Leonard V. Koos, *The Reorganization of Secondary Education*, p. 119. National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 5. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1932, No. 17.

larly on the part of heads of the separate schools. Among others who questioned it were persons who had seen certain undivided 6-year schools in operation and had noted the meager provision of features sometimes accorded Grades VII and VIII in such schools. The present writer can attest to this observation from firsthand contact in some schools. It must be inferred that this was not the typical condition in the junior-senior and undivided schools represented in the National Survey inquiry.

Because the 6–4–4 plan of organization is one of relatively recent advent, appraisal had to wait until such a time as a considerable number of school systems were committed to it and operating on it. The present writer undertook such a comparison and reported the findings about ten years ago.[16] The comparison involved the gathering of facts concerning certain features of internal organization in seventeen four-year and thirty-four three-year junior high schools. The investigation included visits to most of the four-year schools represented.

The main conclusion drawn from the comparison is that the four-year junior high school is a better unit than is the three-year school, which, in turn, holds an established superiority over corresponding grades of the older 8–4 pattern. The facts of practice disclosed a curriculum of greater enrichment and expanded possibilities in exploration in the four-year schools. They showed a development in the extra-curriculum of organizations and activities that capitalize the greater maturity of the pupils in Grade X, thereby affording more experience in leadership of, and participation in, affairs of social significance that comport with needs in a democratic society. They found a schedule more in keeping with preferred theory and practice. They showed a trend toward a better-prepared teaching staff, more nearly balanced in representation of men and women, and a more nearly adequate administrative staff. They indicated improvement of the housing and facilities to accommodate the enriched program of instruction and activities. These elements of superiority had already emerged during the young lives of these new units before many teachers and administrators had become fully aware of possibilities.

In light of the facts on the growth and status of junior high school reorganization as reported in the first paper in this series and of the inferences from the projects in appraisal of grade-groupings just reviewed, it is appropriate to quote a few concluding sentences from Jones's appraisal of the whole movement. Said he:

> The tendency . . . seems to be for a longer unit in the secondary school; either a six-year unit or two four-year units. . . . The separate junior high school is not adapted to the small high school and most of our high schools have an enrolment of 125 or less. Those considerations lead to the conclusion that in all probability the junior

[16] Leonard V. Koos, "The Superiority of the Four-Year Junior High School," *School Review*, LI (September, 1943), 397–407.

high school, while its contribution to educational reform has been great, will gradually pass from the picture as a separate school.[17]

A comment on this conclusion concerning the likelihood of the passing of the separate three-year junior unit is that it is, in part, merely an academic question even in systems preferring and working out, as the prevailing type, six-year secondary schools. This is because in systems of large school population, owing to the undesirability of having children of early adolescence travel long distances to attend school and the desirability of school units of moderate size for youth of junior high school age, more schools for them will be needed than for youth at the senior high school level. Such factors will foster the continuance of separate three-year units, especially in systems that are not extended upward to include Grades XIII–XIV.

The concluding article in this series will deal with "Organization of the Curriculum," "Retreat from Departmentalization," "Other Features of Reorganization," and "Prospects of Further Reorganization."

[*To be concluded*]

[17] Arthur J. Jones, "The Junior High School: Past, Present, and Future," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVIII (March, 1944), 14.

A SEMANTICS CLUB IN A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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WORD-STUDY is thought monotonous and meaningless by many teachers, and consequently it is noteworthy to find that, when it is presented in an interesting fashion, pupils will form a club to study semantics.

In 1952 the seventh-grade pupils of the Grasmere School in Fairfield, Connecticut, were introduced to semantics as an outgrowth of their science class. Because of the interest shown by the pupils and by their parents, a Semantics Club was formed in the following year in Grades VII and VIII.

MEANINGS OF WORDS

To help introduce semantics to the seventh-graders, they were reintroduced to the dictionary, with the explanation that the compilers of the dictionary are not law-givers but that they have merely recorded, to the best of their ability, what various words have meant to authors and learned persons. To help get this idea across, the change in the definition of the word *broadcast* was used. It was pointed out that, not too long ago, *broadcast* meant "to scatter seed" but that now the most common meaning of the word is "to speak messages over the radio." It was explained that we cannot even guess what meaning any words will take in the future.

One day in class a boy was overheard calling a classmate a *coward*. A member of the class challenged the boy to say exactly what he meant by *coward*. Several members of the class went to the dictionary (the *Winston Simplified Dictionary*) and found the definition of *coward* to be "a person lacking in courage; a shamefully timid person." One pupil said he knew a boy who enjoyed playing football but who was afraid to box. Many examples were brought forth to prove that a boy or girl may be frightened or timid in one situation and not in another.

The word *strong* was discussed, and again the pupils felt there were many different meanings for the word. They came to the conclusion that it is necessary to see or hear a word in context to know what it means.

DISTORTION OF FACT BY WORD OF MOUTH

The article "Gossip Can Be Dynamite"[1] was used with the class. The child in the front seat of the first row

[1] Howard Whitman, "Gossip Can Be Dynamite," *This Week Magazine* (September 17, 1949). New York: This Week Magazine, 1949.

was given forty seconds to memorize a picture. Then he tried to repeat what he saw to the person behind him. This went on down the row. When the child in the last seat of each row had been told the gossip, he was asked to repeat what he had heard. Of course, the remarks were humorous, and the pupils seemed to be impressed with the unreliability of second-hand information.

PERSPECTIVE

Perspective was brought out by the instructor, who set up a hypothetical accident with three members of the class supposedly at the scene. The three pupils readily agreed that their stories would differ according to what each thought he had seen. They spoke of the three angles from which they would be seeing the accident. From this came discussion of judging prize fights or umpiring baseball games. The class members felt that in the future they would not be too harsh on umpires.

ADVERTISING

Many advertising slogans that were brought in by the children were discussed in class. Although the pupils said they understood the importance of advertising in our modern society, they felt that many advertisers were not giving information but were trying to create automatic reactions in as many persons as possible. They further decided that advertisers sometimes use fallacious logic. The class felt that some business firms try to produce fantasies and delusions because they believe fantasies and delusions will lead us to buy their products.

POLITICS

The Semantics Club in 1952–53 was made up largely of pupils who had been exposed to semantics in the previous year. In September the student body elected a student council. The candidates held an election campaign, and posters and slogans were displayed about the building. The Semantics Club discussed many of these slogans from a semantic point of view.

The group felt that words were necessary to get votes but that the words used in campaign slogans and campaign promises should be carefully analyzed. It was felt that politicians are sometimes compelled to make promises that later circumstances may prevent them from keeping. It was also pointed out that, when a candidate promises to help a group, such as the farmers, farmers may vote for him and then discover that he helps dairy farmers and not truck farmers. The truck farmers are disappointed, but it cannot be said that the candidate did not "help the farmers." The group felt that the politician is not always to blame but that the voter may be blamed for having an illusion to start with.

INFERENCES, JUDGMENTS, AND REPORTS

The word *inference* was brought up during a club period, and after some research the members felt that inferences were highly important. They

began to realize that in everyday life and in science we rely as much on inferences as on reports. It was felt that we may infer from the handsomeness of a man's clothes his wealth or social position in life. We may infer from the condition of a man's hands the type of work that he does. Inferences may be carefully or carelessly made. They may be made on a basis of a background of many previous experiences or no experience at all. A mechanic may be able, by listening, to tell much about the internal condition of a motor, while a novice may be entirely wrong. The group decided that inferences are statements about matters which are not directly known, made on the basis of what has been observed. The point was made that we should avoid inferences when we are reporting; that is, we should make no guesses as to what is going on in the minds of other persons. The group stressed the importance of understanding that, even if the inference appears to be fairly certain, we should remember, for the purposes of training ourselves, that it is an inference.

As an exercise using inference, the group was asked to reword the following sentence, "He thought a lot of himself, and he was frightened by girls." They substituted, "He seldom spoke to subordinates in the office. I saw him at a dance, and he only danced when a girl asked him."

The club also discussed with great interest "judgments" and "reports." They felt that a report should not state, "Jack's dad has a wonderful car," but must rather state something like, "Jack's dad drove his car 65,000 miles without major repairs." The club members felt that too many persons believe that statements such as the following are statements of "fact": "Billy lied to me." "Johnny is a thief." "Clarence is brilliant." As ordinarily used, the word *lied* involves, first, an inference (that the person who is "lying" knew otherwise and purposely misstated the facts) and, second, a judgment (the speaker does not approve of what he has inferred Billy has done).

The group seemed to enjoy discussing the differences between judgments and reports more than any other phase of semantics. They now feel that they have a little better insight into the use of words and the effect of words upon people.

CONCLUSION

As a result of their study of semantics and participation in the Semantics Club, seventh- and eighth-grade pupils in the Grasmere School seem to be a little more aware of how things, facts, and operations are related in nature and of the differences among statements of fact, inferences, reports, and judgments. They are also more likely to examine closely extravagant promises and claims made by political candidates and advertisers, to reserve their judgment on gossip and "eyewitness" accounts, and to determine whether other persons are giving to words the same implications that they themselves give to the words in various situations.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON STATISTICS, THE THEORY OF TEST CONSTRUCTION, AND FACTOR ANALYSIS

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THE BIBLIOGRAPHY which is presented below has been selected from issues of educational and psychological journals from March, 1952, to June, 1953, inclusive. Sharp distinctions do not exist between the fields covered in this list, but, as an assistance to the student with special interests in one or more of the fields, the references have been classified under the following categories: theory and use of statistical methods, problems of test construction, and factor analysis. No articles dealing primarily with the use of tests have been included because these items are distributed functionally in other lists in the cycle, such as those dealing with secondary-school instruction and guidance.

THEORY AND USE OF STATISTICAL METHODS

729. ANGOFF, WILLIAM H. "Test Reliability and Effective Test Length," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (March, 1953), 1–14.

Develops measures of "effective test length" for speeded and power tests. These measures are used, together with certain other information, to determine the test reliability.

730. APPEL, VALENTINE. "Companion Nomographs for Testing the Significance of the Difference between Uncorrelated Percentages," *Psychometrika*, XVII (September, 1952), 325–30.

Presents a set of two nomographs for testing significance between uncorrelated percents and for determining necessary sizes of sample when planning studies which will involve the comparison of per cents.

731. ARBONS, A. G., and SICHEL, H. S. "On the Economies of a Pre-screening Technique for Aptitude Test Batteries," *Psychometrika*, XVII (September, 1952), 331–46.

A psychometric pre-screening technique which will reduce the cost of test administration is developed. The technique is illustrated with a numerical example.

732. ARCHER, E. JAMES. "Some Greco-Latin Analysis of Variance Designs for Learning Studies," *Psychological Bulletin*, XLIX (September, 1952), 521–37.

"Two basic multiple-classification analyses of variance of repeated measurements incorporating Greco-Latin squares" are described in detail and illustrated with hypothetical data. The applicability and limitations of the methods are described.

733. AYERS, J. DOUGLAS, and STANLEY, J. PERHAM. "The Rolling Totals Method of Computing Sums, Sums of Squares, and Sums of Cross-Products," *Psychometrika*, XVII (September, 1952), 305–10.

A detailed description of a punched-card procedure for obtaining the necessary sums

for computing correlation coefficients. Only a sorter and a tabulator equipped with a Card Cycle Total Transfer Device are used.

734. BROŽEK, JOSEF, and TIEDE, KENNETH. "Reliable and Questionable Significance in a Series of Statistical Tests," *Psychological Bulletin*, XLIX (July, 1952), 339–41.

A solution is given for determining the probability of obtaining by chance n significant critical ratios in a series of N tests of significance, the constituent events being independent.

735. BURKE, C. J. "Additive Scales and Statistics," *Psychological Review*, LX (January, 1953), 73–75.

Discussion of the applicability of statistical concepts to psychological measurements.

736. BURKE, PAUL J. "IBM Computation of Sums of Products for Positive and Negative Numbers," *Psychometrika*, XVII (June, 1952), 231–33.

Gives instructions for wiring the plugboard of the IBM tabulator in such a way that sums, sums of squares, and sums of products of positive and negative numbers can be computed without resorting to special coding in order to eliminate the negative numbers.

737. CAFFREY, JOHN, and WHEELER, FRED. "A Simplified X^2 Formula for Rapid Computation of Certain Item-Analysis Data with IBM Punched-Card Equipment," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXI (March, 1953), 265–69.

The chi-squared formula is rewritten in order to facilitate its computation with IBM equipment. Detailed machine procedures are given.

738. COFFMAN, WILLIAM E. "Estimating the Internal Consistency of a Test When Items are Scored 2, 1, or 0," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XII (Autumn, 1952), 392–93.

Indicates an analysis of variance procedure for estimating the degree of internal consistency of a test whose items are scored 2, 1, or 0.

739. CURETON, EDWARD E. "Note on the Scaling of Ratings or Rankings When the Numbers per Subject Are Unequal," *Psychometrika*, XVII (December, 1952), 397–99.

"The average rating (or normalized rank) of a person rated by a larger number of judges will in general be closer to the group average than will the average rating of a person rated by a smaller number of judges. . . . This note presents a technique for correcting that bias."

740. DUDEK, FRANK J. "A Comparison of Biserial R with Pearson R," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XII (Winter, 1952), 759–66.

Compares biserial r with Pearson r for empirical data. Considers some of the factors that will produce discrepancies between the two estimates of the correlation and indicates the extent of these discrepancies.

741. EDWARDS, ALLEN L., and THURSTONE, L. L. "An Internal Consistency Check for Scale Values Determined by the Method of Successive Intervals," *Psychometrika*, XVII (June, 1952), 169–80.

An internal consistency check for scale values determined by the method of successive intervals is described and illustrated. Comparisons are made with internal-consistency checks for paired-comparison data.

742. ENGELHART, MAX D., and THOMAS, MACKLIN. "A Procedure for Transforming Scores Unique to Part of a Student Population to the Scale of a Common Examination Taken by the Entire Student Population," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Summer, 1953), 248–63.

Describes in detail the procedure employed at the Chicago City Junior College for obtaining weighted sums of a general examination and examinations from each of the three branches of the college.

743. FLANAGAN, JOHN C. "The Effectiveness of Short Methods for Calculating Correlation Coefficients," *Psychological Bulletin*, XLIX (July, 1952), 342–48.

Discusses the selection of a suitable short method of calculating correlation coefficients for a particular problem, indicates the time required to use the various methods, and presents empirical data on the relative accuracy of these methods as compared with the longer product-moment computational procedure.

744. GORDON, MORDECAI H.; LOVELAND, EDWARD H.; and CURETON, EDWARD E. "An Extended Table of Chi-Square for Two Degrees of Freedom, for Use in Combining Probabilities from Independent Samples," *Psychometrika*, XVII (September, 1952), 311–16.

"A table of values of chi-square for two degrees of freedom corresponding to values of P from .001 to .999 is presented, together with a description and an example of its use in combining probabilities from two or more independent samples to obtain an aggregate probability."

745. GOURLAY, NEIL. "Covariance Analysis and Its Application in Psychological Research," *British Journal of Statistical Psychology*, VI (May, 1953), 25–34.

Reviews the main uses of the analysis of covariance with special reference to its applications in psychological research.

746. GUILFORD, J. P. "The Correlation of an Item with a Composite of the Remaining Items in a Test," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Spring, 1953), 87–93.

Presents a special formula for estimating the correlation of an item with the score on the remaining items. Four abaci based on this formula are given to provide solutions under a wide range of conditions.

747. HICK, W. E. "A Note on One-tailed and Two-tailed Tests," *Psychological Review*, LIX (July, 1952), 316–18.

A discussion which expresses a somewhat different point of view from that of Melvin R. Marks ("Two Kinds of Experiment Distinguished in Terms of Statistical Operations," *Psychological Review*, LVIII [May, 1951], 179–84).

748. HOYT, CYRIL J., and STUNKARD, CLAYTON L. "Estimation of Test Reliability for Unrestricted Item Scoring Methods," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XII (Winter, 1952), 756–58.

An analysis of variance procedure for estimating the degree of internal consistency of a test when the item scores are not restricted to 1 or 0.

749. HSÜ, E. H. "Nomograph for Tetrachoric *r*," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Summer, 1953), 339–46.

Constructs a nomograph to aid in the computation of tetrachoric correlations.

750. KOGAN, LEONARD S. "Variance Designs in Psychological Research," *Psychological Bulletin*, L (January, 1953), 1–40.

A survey of the major types of experimental design involving analysis of variance which have characterized psychological research during recent years. The author comments on the appropriateness of the design or analysis in some instances and discusses general considerations in application of variance design and analysis. A bibliography of 133 items is appended.

751. LAWSHE, C. H., and NAGLE, BRYANT F. "A Note on the Combination of Ratings on the Basis of Reliability," *Psychological Bulletin*, XLIX (May, 1952), 270–73.

An evaluation, from the point of view of practical application, of several methods of combining ratings on the basis of their reliability.

752. LORD, FREDERIC M. "Notes on a Problem of Multiple Classification," *Psychometrika*, XVII (September, 1952), 297–304.

Develops a solution "in implicit form for the problem of assigning N men to n jobs, the proportion of men to be assigned to each job being specified in advance."

753. LORD, FREDERIC M. "An Application of Confidence Intervals and of Maximum Likelihood to the Estimation of an Examinee's Ability," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (March, 1953), 57–76.

Introduces a metric for measuring the ability underlying the test score, a metric that will remain invariant from test to test.

754. LYERLY, SAMUEL B. "The Average Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient," *Psychometrika*, XVII (December, 1952), 421–28.

Derives a formula expressing the average Spearman rank-correlation coefficient of N sets of ranks with a single dependent or criterion ranking of n items without computing any of the individual coefficients. Tests of significance are also considered.

755. MICHAEL, WILLIAM B., and PERRY, NORMAN C. "The Prediction of Membership in a Trichotomous Dependent Variable from Scores in a Continuous Independent Variable," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XII (Autumn, 1952), 368–91.

Formulas are developed for finding the probability that an individual with a known score on the continuous independent variable will be in a designated category of the trichotomous dependent variable and for finding the critical score on the continuous independent variable given the probability of an individual's being in a designated category of the trichotomous dependent variable. Numerical examples are included.

756. MICHAEL, WILLIAM B.; PERRY, NORMAN C.; and GUILFORD, J. P. "The Estimation of a Point Biserial Coefficient of Correlation from a Phi Coefficient," *British Journal of Psychology—Statistical Section*, V (November, 1952), 139–50.

A formula is developed relating the point biserial correlation to the phi coefficient. The degree of systematic error in the formula is discussed. An illustrative example in the field of item analysis is included.

757. MICHAEL, WILLIAM B.; PERRY, NORMAN C.; and HERTZKA, ALFRED F. "Systematic Error in Estimates of Tetrachoric R," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XII (Autumn, 1952), 515–24.

A procedure is developed and illustrated for estimating the amount of systematic error introduced through the use of a formula relating the tetrachoric correlation and the phi coefficient. Tables are included for selected values of the various parameters in the formula. (See also Item 761 in this list.)

758. MOSES, LINCOLN E. "A Two-Sample Test," *Psychometrika*, XVII (September, 1952), 239–47.

Offers a procedure, based on ranks, for testing the difference between an experimental group and a control group in case the experimental condition is likely to affect the scores of some of the subjects in one direction and the scores of some of the subjects in the opposite direction.

759. NIVEN, JAROLD R. "A Comparison of Two Attitude Scaling Techniques," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Spring, 1953), 65–76.

Investigates and compares two attitude scaling methods, the Reciprocal Averages Scaling Technique and Guttman's Cornell Scale Analysis.

760. OSGOOD, CHARLES E., and SUCI, GEORGE J. "A Measure of Relation Determined by Both Mean Difference and Profile Information," *Psychological Bulletin*, XLIX (May, 1952), 251–62.

Describes a method for analyzing interrelations among variables which takes into account not only the profile similarity among the sets of measures but also their

mean differences. (See also Item 764 in this list.)

761. PERRY, NORMAN C., and MICHAEL, WILLIAM B. "The Relationship of the Tetrachoric Correlation Coefficient to the Phi Coefficient Estimated from the Extreme Tails of a Normal Distribution of Criterion Scores," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XII (Winter, 1952), 778–86.

A formula is developed for estimating a tetrachoric coefficient of correlation from a phi coefficient that is computed from use of extreme groups of equal, but variable, proportions of the total criterion group.

762. RUMMEL, J. FRANCIS. "A Simplified Method for Determining the Proportion of Differences in Excess of Chance Proportions Used in Differential Prediction," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Spring, 1953), 145–49.

A simplified method which facilitates the determination of the proportion of the differences between scores on a pair of tests that cannot be accounted for by chance.

763. TYLER, FRED T. "Some Examples of Multivariate Analysis in Educational and Psychological Research," *Psychometrika*, XVII (September, 1952), 289–96.

Describes and illustrates procedures for answering the following questions: (1) Could two groups of subjects have arisen from the same population? (2) If not, is it possible to classify a given individual into either of the two populations mentioned in the first question? (3) If so, into which of the two populations is the individual best classified?

764. WEBSTER, HAROLD. "A Note on Profile Similarity," *Psychological Bulletin*, XLIX (September, 1952), 538–39.

Suggests other approaches to the problem raised by Osgood and Suci (see Item 760 in this list).

765. WESMAN, ALEXANDER G., and KERNAN, JOHN P. "An Experimental Comparison of Test-Retest and Internal Consistency Estimates of Reliability with Speeded Tests," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLIII (May, 1952), 292–98.

A comparison of four measures of reliability computed for each of nine parts, three subtotal scores, and the total score of the General Clerical Test. The four measures of reliability are test-retest, split-half, Kuder-Richardson (20) and Kuder-Richardson (21).

PROBLEMS OF TEST CONSTRUCTION

766. ALLISON, ROGER B., JR. "Battery Validity as a Function of the Time Devoted to Each Test," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Summer, 1953), 288–96.

Summarizes some theoretical studies on properties of a test battery that are a function of the testing time for each test in the battery, and reports an empirical study dealing with battery validity and testing time.

767. ANASTASI, ANNE. "An Empirical Study of the Applicability of Sequential Analysis to Item Selection," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Spring, 1953), 3–13.

Provides empirical evidence for the effectiveness of sequential sampling techniques in the evaluation of psychological-test items.

768. ANDERSON, SCARVIA B. "Sequence in Multiple Choice Item Options," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLIII (October, 1952), 364–68.

Presents a table to assist the test constructor in randomizing the options in preparing five-choice test items. Describes five situations in which, the author suggests, randomization should not be used.

769. BUDD, WILLIAM C. "A Simplified Item Analysis Card for High-School and College Instructors," *Journal of Education-*

al Psychology, XLIV (January, 1953), 54–56.

Suggests a card form on which instructors can keep a record of the difficulty and discrimination of their multiple-choice items and so have a basis for test revision.

770. COOMBS, C. H. "On the Use of Objective Examinations," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Summer, 1953), 308–10.

Suggests a method of scoring multiple-choice examinations which will discriminate levels of partial knowledge and will yield a greater variance of test scores than does the conventional scoring procedure.

771. CRONBACH, LEE J., and WARRINGTON, WILLARD G. "Efficiency of Multiple-Choice Tests as a Function of Spread of Item Difficulties," *Psychometrika*, XVII (June, 1952), 127–47.

An empirical study, based on hypothetical data, which leads to certain conclusions regarding the relations between test validity and spread of item difficulty.

772. EBEL, ROBERT L. "Maximizing Test Validity in Fixed Time Limits," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Summer, 1953), 347–57.

Illustrates the influence of rate of work on validity by means of empirical data collected in order to investigate the problem: "Given a prescribed testing period of reasonable length and an adequate supply of good items, how many items should be included in the test and how should they be scored to yield maximum validity as rate-free measures?"

773. EWERS, DOROTHEA W. F. "The Test Constructor's Responsibility," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLIII (April, 1952), 238–42.

A general discussion of the special qualifications of the test-construction expert who, in any large test-construction outfit, shares responsibility for the final product with the subject-matter expert and the statistician.

774. FELDMAN, MARVIN J. "The Effects of the Size of Criterion Groups and the Level of Significance in Selecting Test Items on the Validity of Tests," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Summer, 1953), 273–79.

Presents empirical data bearing on two problems of test construction: (1) the relation between the size of the criterion group and the amount of shrinkage in validity accruing in cross-validation and (2) the effect of using different levels of significance in selecting discriminating items from the criterion groups.

775. FLEISHMAN, EDWIN A. "A Factor Analysis of Intra-task Performance on Two Psychomotor Tests," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (March, 1953), 45–55.

An application of factorial techniques to scores on several trials of two forms of the Rudder Control Test. The implications of the results for future test development are emphasized.

776. FREDERIKSEN, NORMAN, and SATTER, G. A. "The Construction and Validation of an Arithmetical Computation Test," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Summer, 1953), 209–27.

A complete description of the construction and validation of a test. This article "is presented with no thought that the particular test under consideration is of unusual interest, but rather to illustrate several methods of test construction and validation which are unique or rarely employed and which deserve to be brought to the attention of those interested in test development techniques."

777. GORDON, LEONARD V. "The Effect of Position on the Preference Value of Personality Items," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XII (Winter, 1952), 669–76.

Describes an experiment designed to determine whether a response set exists which manifests itself in a tendency for

the response pattern to change systematically during the test situation.

778. HELMSTADTER, GERALD C., and ORTMEYER, DALE H. "Some Techniques for Determining the Relative Magnitude of Speed and Power Components of a Test," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Summer, 1953), 280–87.

Three methods are suggested for assessing the relative importance of speed and power factors in test scores.

779. JONES, T.; HEY, C. G.; and WALL, W. D. "A Group Performance Test and Scale of Intelligence," *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXII (November, 1952), 160–72.

Describes the construction, scoring, and validation of a group performance test. The new test consists of the Cube Construction Test and the Kohs Blocks Test.

780. KEISLAR, EVAN R. "Test Instructions and Scoring Method in True-false Tests," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXI (March, 1953), 243–49.

A study "designed to discover the merits of using the correction formula in true-false tests at the college level when students are informed only as to how the test would be scored" but are not advised whether or not to guess.

781. LORD, FREDERIC M. "The Relation of the Reliability of Multiple-Choice Tests to the Distribution of Item Difficulties," *Psychometrika*, XVII (June, 1952), 181–94.

Gives the formula for the correlation between the score on a multiple-choice test involving a single factor and the underlying ability. Relates this correlation to level and variability of item difficulty.

782. LORGE, IRVING, and KRUGLOV, LORRAINE. "A Suggested Technique for the Improvement of Difficulty Prediction of Test Items," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XII (Winter, 1952), 554–61.

A report of an experiment which illustrates the degree of accuracy with which informed judges can predict the difficulty of test items.

783. LORGE, IRVING, and KRUGLOV, LORRAINE. "The Improvement of Estimates of Test Difficulty," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Spring, 1953), 34–46.

Reports a study designed to test the hypothesis that, when judges, experienced as teachers of mathematics on the high-school levels, are informed about the absolute difficulty of a set of items within their teaching field, their estimates of absolute difficulty for unknown items will be improved.

784. SWINEFORD, FRANCES, and MILLER, PETER M. "Effects of Directions Regarding Guessing on Item Statistics of a Multiple-Choice Vocabulary Test," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLIV (March, 1953), 129–39.

An investigation of the amount of guessing that is likely to occur on an examination under different instructions to the examinee, the relation between amount of guessing and performance in the area covered by the test, and the effects of guessing on scores and on test statistics and item statistics.

785. SWORDES, ARDIS. "Effect of Changing the Number of Item Responses from Five to Four in the Same Test," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXVI (October, 1952), 342–43.

Shows with actual data the number of marking errors likely to occur in case some test items, but not all, contain four choices instead of five and a standard five-choice answer sheet is provided.

FACTOR ANALYSIS[1]

786. ADCOCK, C. J. "A Note on Cluster-directed Analysis," *Psychometrika*, XVII (September, 1952), 249–53.

Discusses methods of locating factor axes directly by correlation clusters.

[1] See also Item 775 (Fleishman) in this list.

787. ALBINO, R. C. "Some Criticism of the Application of Factor Analysis to the Study of Personality," *British Journal of Psychology—General Section*, XLIV (May, 1953), 164–68.

Criticizes the interpretation and significance which Eysenck gives to results of factor analysis. (See also Item 791 in this list.)

788. BURT, CYRIL. "Tests of Significance in Factor Analysis," *British Journal of Psychology—Statistical Section*, V (June, 1952), 109–33.

An extensive summary of significance tests which have been proposed in articles, theses, and published researches. Their advantages and limitations are indicated from both a theoretical and a practical point of view.

789. CARROLL, JOHN B. "An Analytical Solution for Approximating Simple Structure in Factor Analysis," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (March, 1953), 23–38.

Proposes a criterion for an approximation to simple structure based on sums of cross-products of squares of factor loadings. A numerical example is included.

790. CATTELL, RAYMOND B. "The Three Basic Factor-analytic Research Designs—Their Interrelations and Derivatives," *Psychological Bulletin*, XLIX (September, 1952), 499–520.

Defines and describes six primary factor-analytic experimental designs, which reduce to what the author calls "three independent *common matrix* pairs."

791. EYSENCK, H. J. "The Application of Factor Analysis to the Study of Personality: A Reply," *British Journal of Psychology—General Section*, XLIV (May, 1953), 169–72.

The author defends his position with respect to his use of factor analysis following a criticism printed in the same issue of the *Journal*. (See Item 787 in this list.)

792. GIBSON, W. A. "Orthogonal and Oblique Simple Structures," *Psychometrika*, XVII (September, 1952), 317–23.

Develops and illustrates numerically a quick approximation of the best-fitting orthogonal simple structure from the known oblique simple structure. (See also Item 793 in this list.)

793. GREEN, BERT F. "The Orthogonal Approximation of an Oblique Structure in Factor Analysis," *Psychometrika*, XVII (December, 1952), 429–40.

Presents three methods for obtaining an orthogonal factor matrix which closely approximates a given oblique factor matrix. (See also Item 792 in this list.)

794. GUTTMAN, LOUIS. "Multiple Group Methods for Common-Factor Analysis Their Basis, Computation, and Interpretation," *Psychometrika*, XVII (June, 1952), 209–22.

Explains three basic theorems used in factor theory. The meaning of common-factor analysis is given in terms of the basic theorems, as well as the relation to "inverted" factor theory.

795. KNOELL, DOROTHY M., and HARRIS, CHESTER W. "A Factor Analysis of Spelling Ability," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVI (October, 1952), 95–111.

Several scores obtained from two kinds of tests of spelling ability are subjected to factor analysis. The study is repeated for a group of sixty-eight sixth-grade girls and a group of seventy-four eleventh- and twelfth-grade pupils.

796. MOURSY, E. M. "The Hierarchical Organization of Cognitive Levels," *British Journal of Psychology—Statistical Section*, V (November, 1952), 151–80.

Applies several factorial procedures to the table of intercorrelations of twenty mental tests in order to test Burt's hypothesis of a hierarchical structure.

797. PEMBERTON, CAROL. "The Closure Factors Related to Other Cognitive Proc-

esses," *Psychometrika*, XVII (September, 1952), 267–88.

A factor analysis of twenty-five speeded group tests administered to 154 graduate and undergraduate students. The purpose of the study was "to ascertain whether abilities on speed of closure and flexibility of closure tests generalize to other domains." This paper deals with "generalization of the closure factors to tasks requiring higher cognitive functions."

798. RYANS, DAVID G. "A Study of Criterion Data (A Factor Analysis of Teacher Behaviors in the Elementary School)," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XII (Autumn, 1952), 333–44.

The application of factorial methods to a battery of criterion measures. This study is one of a series of related investigations being conducted in connection with the Teacher Characteristics Study.

799. RYANS, DAVID G., and WANDT, EDWIN. "A Factor Analysis of Observed Teacher Behaviors in the Secondary School: A Study of Criterion Data," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XII (Winter, 1952), 574–86.

A battery of twenty-five traits revealed in the classroom behaviors of teachers and pupils in the fields of mathematics, science, English, and social studies is submitted to factorial analysis. This study is one of a series of related investigations being conducted in connection with the Teacher Characteristics Study.

800. SANAI, M. "An Empirical Study of Political, Religious, and Social Attitudes," *British Journal of Psychology—Statistical Section*, V (June, 1952), 81–92.

Reports a factor analysis of a thirty-item questionnaire. The correlations were factorized by Burt's Method of Simple Summation.

801. SANDLER, JOSEPH. "A Technique for Facilitating the Rotation of Factor Axes, Based on an Equivalence between Persons and Tests," *Psychometrika*, XVII (June, 1952), 223–29.

Suggests a technique whereby "test-equivalents" of persons can be included in the factor space as an aid both to rotating to simple structure and to interpreting the resulting solution.

802. STEPHENSON, WILLIAM. "Some Observations on *Q* Technique," *Psychological Bulletin*, XLIX (September, 1952), 483–98.

A clarification of the fundamental distinctions between the *R* technique and the *Q* technique of factor analysis.

803. TORGERSON, WARREN S., and GREEN, BERT F., JR. "The Factor Analysis of Subject-Matter Experts," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLIII (October, 1952), 354–63.

An application of factorial-analysis techniques to correlations between twenty readers who each graded thirty-eight selected essays. The centroid solution was rotated to an oblique solution.

804. WRIGLEY, CHARLES. "The Prediction of a Complex Aptitude," *British Journal of Psychology—Statistical Section*, V (June, 1952), 93–104.

Presents and illustrates a method of predicting an aptitude which is measured by a battery of criteria instead of by a single criterion. The procedure appears to be particularly well adapted to the problem of personnel selection.

805. ZIMMERMAN, WAYNE S. "A Revised Orthogonal Rotational Solution for Thurstone's Original Primary Mental Abilities Test Battery," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (March, 1953), 77–93.

Concerned over the abundance of variance in the residual factors of Thurstone's own analysis of his primary mental abilities tests, the author started with Thurstone's final pattern and performed eighty-six additional pair-by-pair rotations. The results are compared with the original solution.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

STEPHEN M. COREY, *Action Research To Improve School Practices*. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. Pp. xii+162. $3.00.

The problem to which *Action Research To Improve School Practices* is addressed is, "How can school practices best be improved in our type of society?" Few will quarrel with the underlying beliefs that directed Corey's attention to this problem and impelled him to write this book. These beliefs are, in summary:

1. We are now experiencing only the beginnings of the changes that modern science and technology will bring.
2. Schools perform their rightful role only when they increase our ability to adjust to, and to use wisely, this technology.
3. The extensive changes which should be made in school practices can best be made through study and action programs centered in hundreds of thousands of classrooms throughout America.

The volume opens with a critical analysis of current research in education. The author charges that this research is making little difference in classroom procedures. This failure is partly due to the fact that the questions studied are not the same as those that trouble teachers, but a more important reason is that the researchers have not been school practitioners and, conversely, school practitioners have not been researchers. The remedy for this is *action research*, the use of the method of science by thousands of teachers, administrators, and supervisors. This research is to be related directly to the day-by-day activities of the classrooms and schools served.

The action-research process, as analyzed in a second chapter, is seen as a procedure similar to Dewey's concept of the act of thinking. In a subsequent chapter the danger of overformalizing this process is noted, and the reader is wisely cautioned to think of action research as "refined common sense."

Later chapters provide stimulating considerations of the conditions favorable to action research by teachers, the preparation of consultants to assist with such research, and the nature of the statistics needed. These chapters come from an examination of eight years' experience of the author and his associates in assisting schools which conduct action research. Therefore, they merit careful reading.

Because of general agreement with the point of view, this reviewer read this volume with much interest. Curriculum workers and persons engaged in educational research can ill afford to treat lightly the author's criticisms of present attempts to promote educational change. The gap between what is known and what is practiced is far too great for comfort.

The possibility of using action research for accelerating and making more significant our changes in education is considerable. For this reason, Corey's book should be welcomed. But one who has faith in the general idea also has special reason for commenting upon what seem to him weaknesses in the volume.

The book is unevenly written, partly because it is primarily an adaptation of articles written over a period of several years for various journals. The result is that too little attention is given to some major problems and overemphasis is placed upon others.

Perhaps it is not too presumptuous to express the belief that, if the book had been written as a single piece, a much better volume would have been produced. One hopes that out of the work of the institute directed by the author there may come such a volume at an early date.

A second disturbing feature of the book is the unimpressive nature of the two action-research studies that are reported. The first, a study of ways of improving teacher-planning meetings, resulted in some promising, but modest, tentative conclusions. The second, an examination of the influence of the study of American biographies upon student behavior, was based upon hypotheses that should have been discarded through a bit of common-sense reflection. More serious, the devices used for testing results were obviously of doubtful reliability and validity. One doubts that the teachers involved left this project with much enthusiasm for action research.

These critical comments are made not to belittle the efforts of the participants, for their zeal was highly commendable. Rather, the intent is to point out that we are dealing with a difficult method and that, even with the able assistance of an excellent staff such as that of the Horace Mann–Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation, schools do not make quickly such sweeping changes in educational practice as the author thinks are needed.

A final critical note: it is possible that the author's dedication to action research at the grass roots has caused him to be too skeptical of teachers' ability to use the research findings of others. In part, limited ability to act upon the discoveries of others is a characteristic of immaturity. Such immaturity was widely prevalent in the medical profession a half-century ago. Improvements in medical education have done much to lessen this unwarranted attachment to the "tried and true."

Is it not possible that in the profession of education we may also develop such maturity as will enable us to use more readily new ideas and new discoveries no matter what their source? Perhaps to involve teachers more extensively in action research is the most promising way of promoting such maturity. I am ready to accept this view. This desirable state will not, however, develop spontaneously. Rather, we shall do well, as we encourage and direct action-research programs, simultaneously to encourage teachers to read more widely and to make far more use of things that others have learned about the educative process. If in all this we constantly direct attention to the reasons for changing and improving school practice, if we place our activities in the setting of getting ahead with the great task of developing an American school program adequate for this age of science, I believe we can learn to act upon all sound and significant research no matter what its source.

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RAY H. SIMPSON, *Improving Teaching-Learning Processes.* New York 3: Longmans, Green & Co., 1953. Pp. x+488. $5.00.

"The greatest need of the hour in education is the discovery of ways to shift work from teachers to pupils." This statement by Carrothers of the University of Michigan is quoted (p. 5) with approval by Simpson in his opening chapter as he undertakes the job of explaining in detail his thesis that the primary task of teachers at all levels is to guide learners into becoming self-directive self-educators. This thesis is based on a basic premise that the best education occurs when learners are enabled to identify and solve meaningful problems in their life-situations.

Simpson divides his book into six parts. Part I, comprising chapters i and ii, outlines the assumptions about learning and teaching that guided the writing of this book. He

identifies three kinds of orientations to the teaching-learning process and the assumptions underlying each of these orientations. The author labeled the orientations (1) "common information pattern" (mastery of discrete facts), (2) "common units pattern" (acquisition of bundles of facts), and (3) "common process pattern" (mastery of problem-solving processes).

In Part II, chapters iii–vi, identification of problems of importance to learners and the necessity for developing skill in identifying significant problems are emphasized. Chapter iii points up the practicality of the individual's learning to identify his own problems. Chapters iv and v emphasize the need for teacher-learner planning in the light of the learner's needs and purposes. The intimate relation of problem-solving and the learning process is highlighted in chapter vi.

The author introduces in Part III the concept of "service activities," or procedures which the student must understand and master. Each of chapters vii–xii deals with a service activity: (1) ability to evaluate, (2) competence in self-evaluation, (3) ability to keep a log of individual plans and progress in a learning experience, (4) ability to obtain and use varied resources effectively, (5) development of group membership skills, and (6) mastery of various reading skills necessary for problem-solving.

Part IV, comprising chapters xiii and xiv, presents first a useful overview and assessment of the various teaching plans or methods in common use and then deals with what the author terms "process-related problems." These include the problem of discipline, the development of attitudes, the values and the dangers of both standardized tests and marks, and the problem of insuring effective group-functioning in the classroom.

Chapter xv (Part V) gives a rapid survey of some major researches, especially the Eight-Year Study and the Southern Association Study, which demonstrate the educational soundness of the functional, problem-solving approach of modern education.

Part VI, chapter xvi, points up briefly the challenges teachers have to meet, including that of individual differences, of inculcating a desire for further learning in students, of keeping abreast of latest learning theory, and of constantly adjusting their procedures to student needs and purposes.

This reviewer wholeheartedly subscribes to the principles enunciated by Simpson regarding the teacher's role in facilitating students' learning. These tenets include such ideas as these: the teacher should start from the point at which the learner stands; intrinsic motivation is the *sine qua non* of lasting and usable learning; fact-memorization is a very limited type of learning; students should participate in the planning and implementation of their educational program; learning arises primarily from guided experiencing and doing; and conscious evaluation, especially self-evaluation, is essential for the progress and maturation of the learner.

Nonetheless, the manner in which the message of this book is presented tends to detract from the ideas and philosophy that are stated. Ostensibly, the book is beamed at teachers in service in junior and senior high schools. Actually, it seems to address itself largely to undergraduate students majoring in education. Because of its lengthy and ubiquitous lists of criteria, suggestions, and questions, much of the book gives the impression of being both a course outline and a manual of procedures for future teachers. As such, the book tends to be choppy, difficult to read, and overwhelming to the reader because of its detailing of questions and procedures. Undoubtedly, because of the deep sincerity and singleness of purpose shining through the text, the author can make his material live in the classroom. He certainly does not make it live in his book. Another frailty is the redundancy and sheer repetition throughout the book, even to the extent of reiterating the same analogies to make a point. The bibliographies at the ends of the chapters are not so adequate or up to date,

with the possible exception of those for chapters xi and xiv, as one would like.

With regard to the matter of self-evaluation, the author presents a large number of valuable suggestions for developing this competency in learners. However, the recommendation that the teacher "have each behavior problem child write down on paper his difficulties, problems, sources of dissatisfaction, etc., and evaluate these as to their effect on him" (p. 200) seems highly unrealistic to this reviewer. Likewise, a suggestion regarding sociograms, if taken literally by the teacher, could be very damaging to the learners concerned:

> After the results of such [sociometric] questions have been ascertained, the teacher with the help of the learners may develop sociograms that will reveal isolates and other individuals who probably need special help [p. 336].

The book, in ranging over a gamut of issues from group dynamics in the classroom, through reading and evaluation, to problems of discipline; in presenting too many lengthy lists of bases for action and suggestions; and in repetition of concepts and examples, gives this reviewer the impression of spotty and uneven merit. Yet, because of its broad scope, the strength of conviction with which the tenets of modern education are enunciated, and the specificity of operational techniques that are presented, the volume may prove of value as a resource book to both teacher-practitioners and teachers in training.

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BYRON S. HOLLINSHEAD, *Who Should Go to College*, with a chapter on the role of motivation in attendance at post-high-school educational institutions by ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST and ROBERT R. RODGERS. New York 27: Columbia University Press, 1952. Pp. xvi+190. $3.00.

Who Should Go to College was published for the Commission on Financing Higher Education, which is under the sponsorship of the Association of American Universities. The volume purposes to investigate the reasons why some of those persons who should go to college do not and "to make some estimate of the number of young people for whom a college education would be an advantage, both to themselves and to society" (p. 5).

The book is a preliminary study of the problem of developing more fully our human resources. Separate chapters deal with the following topics:

1. Who now goes to college?
2. What determines their going?
3. Who should go among those not now going?
4. What measures are necessary to get more of the high-ability group to go?
5. How can we provide for this, and what would it cost?

An introductory section suggests the complexity of our school problem and the infinite variety characterizing our school system. Chapters ii and iii offer a quantitative description of some of the main factors relating to college attendance. Reasons for, and decisions concerning, attending college depend in part upon such tangible factors as academic ability, race, sex, geography, family income, and social status. But attendance also depends upon certain intangible factors which may be equally operative but which cannot be explained in a statistical manner. Among such factors are the motivation of the individual, the nature of the educational institution he can attend, the influences that colleges bring to bear, society's demands upon its younger generation at a given period, and the competition of various alternatives to a college education.

The authors of the book do not state precisely how many young people should attend college, but they take the position that society should educate its top talent—the top 25 per cent in ability, which in the normal distribution of intelligence is about the per

cent of the age group who have intelligence quotients above 110. They propose too that those whose ability insures a reasonable chance of success in college should have an opportunity to attend. Such a proposal insures, to some extent at least, that we shall not overlook any persons with high academic ability and also that in many situations there will be a sizable group both of intellectual leaders and of followers who can interpret the thought of the leaders to the group. The projections showing who might attend college relate to four groups: (1) the non-high-school graduates, (2) the non-motivated high-school graduates, (3) the non-financed high-school graduates, (4) high-school graduates who do not go to college because they "have other plans."

The factors that help or hinder college attendance on the part of able students receive attention, as do some estimates of what financial assistance might be expedient to train those persons whose contribution to society might be greater if they were better educated. Two answers pertaining to education at the college level are offered: (1) a national program in the form of scholarships to provide an opportunity for those who can derive benefit from an advanced type of liberal and technical education; (2) an extension of the present high school to include the community college and to be financed by the localities and states. Thus, those with ability below the stage considered desirable for a four-year college would likewise have an opportunity to obtain free or low-cost education beyond high school. Obviously, these suggestions would help equalize the educational opportunities for all high-school graduates.

The volume concludes with a chapter on "The Role of Motivation in Attendance at Post-High-School Educational Institutions," by Robert J. Havighurst and Robert R. Rodgers, of the University of Chicago, followed by selections from the relevant literature.

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THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

*

STICKS AND STONES

CRITICISM of the men and women who are directly responsible for the schooling of adolescents grows more virulent. Teachers and administrators in the secondary schools, and especially professors of education, are accused of promoting policies and practices of questionable validity. Obviously, criticism is neither new nor undesirable. In general, criticism contributes to the health of educational institutions and processes. The things that are unhealthy about some of the current criticisms are their tone and their distortions. In the arts, deliberate or unconscious distortion is legitimate, makes for emphasis, and often creates interesting effects. In discussions of education, deliberate or unconscious distortion, whether by professionals or nonprofessionals, may mislead people who are not well informed and wary. The effects may be serious.

Few, if any, persons are maliciously trying to weaken education. Nearly everyone agrees that the job of identifying weaknesses in the educational system and of devising ways of improving it is not finished. This journal, the *School Review*, is only one of many means of helping get the job done. These columns for more than sixty years have carried criticisms of education and suggestions for improvement that authors and editors have considered constructive.

Perhaps criticisms that are primarily destructive, and that play up distortions, should be ignored. Unless one is willing to use the same questionable tactics as some of the critics, he is at a disadvantage in a debate. One should not, however, be spineless, even though he may be foolish. In the paragraphs that follow, attention will be focused upon several recent examples of what seem, to this writer at least, to be distortions.

When examples of academic weakness of teachers or of students in the secondary schools are discussed, the professors of education in the colleges and universities are often blamed. They are not blameless, but it is a distortion to unload all, or even a major portion, of the blame on their shoulders. In institutions that train teachers, responsibility for the education of secondary-school teachers rests on many departments, and not on the department or the college of education alone. This principle, which has long been recognized by professors of education, has recently been rediscovered by some of their colleagues in other departments. The following formulation is by a professor of history at the University of Illinois:

> The preparation of teachers for the public schools is one of the most important functions of the American university. It is a function of the university as a whole. It will never be satisfactorily performed until it is performed by the university as a whole. The fact that it has largely been delegated to the department or school or college of education is a principal cause of the alarming anti-intellectualism of so much public education today.

This quotation is from an article "On the Education and Certification of Teachers" by Arthur E. Bestor, Jr., appearing in *School and Society* for September 19, 1953. The article gives some useful suggestions for teacher training. Unfortunately, it is weakened by some statements that suggest a lack of objectivity. One of the milder examples is provided by the last sentence in the quotation above. The validity of that sentence is so immediately questionable that any detailed analysis of it may seem unnecessary. To avoid the claim that the indictment has been too hastily thrown aside and to point up the distortion that is involved, let us examine the sentence more carefully. It really makes several assertions: (1) that the preparation of teachers has largely been delegated to the department or school or college of education; (2) that there is anti-intellectualism in much of public education today and that this situation is alarming; (3) that what is asserted in (1) is the principal cause of what is asserted in (2).

The quotation uses the term "fact" a bit loosely. It is widely known that persons training to be secondary-school teachers are required to take certain college courses that are thought of as contributing to a general education. These students also must have a "major subject" and one or more "minor subjects." All these courses are ordinarily part of the programs of departments in the liberal arts colleges (for example, history, physics, English, mathematics, etc.). Even in the institutions that are officially named "teachers' colleges," these courses are taught by faculty members trained in the academic fields, and the courses cover substantially the same ground as those given in the liberal arts colleges and the universities. The professional training taken in departments of education is a small fraction of the student's total program. The fact is that the preparation of secondary-school teachers, in

the broad sense, has largely been delegated, not to the departments of education, but to other departments.

There is little hope, however, that an examination of the facts will necessarily inhibit the publication of distorted interpretations of the situation. One writer who has looked at the requirements for certification in his own state (and elsewhere) is Mr. Albert Lynd, who is now a businessman but who at one time taught college history. His recent book on the subject, *Quackery in the Public Schools* (Boston 6: Little, Brown & Co., 1953. $3.50), has a chapter on "The Scramble for Semester Hours." In this chapter Lynd mentions that Massachusetts, the state in which he resides, had no state legislation on teacher certification until 1951. The new "law provides that by 1954 a minimum of 18 semester hours in Education will be required of graduates of liberal arts colleges who would teach in the elementary schools." This number, 18 semester hours out of at least 120, is very close to the median of the requirements made by the other states. Mr. Lynd blames the influence of professors of education for nearly everything that, to him, is wrong in public education today, and writes:

> This influence has exalted Education as a thing-in-itself over the substantial learning which *was formerly* the concern of education. A teacher was once a person who had studied an objective body of knowledge by way of preparing to teach it to others. His quality was judged by his personal cultivation as well as by his facility in the art of teaching. If too many teachers in the past lacked a reasonable minimum of learning, that was at least deplored by those who worked and hoped for the improvement of the profession. If too many men and women were sent into classrooms without sufficient training in teaching methods, that defect of the older order needed reform. *But the reform has devoured that which was to be reformed.* Pedagogical ignorance is now sanctioned by a system which accepts Education as a substitute for education. [Italics not in original.]

Mr. Lynd frequently generalizes from a few examples, not necessarily typical, to make indictments of the entire group he calls "Educationists." He says: "I am aware that the examples of Educationist mentality just cited could be matched with other selections proving that not all members of the craft are like that" (p. 47). He has chosen, however, to be a polemic and leave to others the responsibility of providing a balanced discussion of the issues.

Mr. Lynd is unmercifully scornful not only of the content but also of the style of writing of "Educationists." With this in mind, let us read again the paragraph from his book quoted above. In the first sentence he writes "was formerly" instead of "is" and so seems to suggest that "substantial learning" is no longer the concern of education (with the lower-case *e*). Surely he does not believe this, and we may safely overlook the slip. The really intriguing sentence is: "But the reform has devoured that which was to be reformed." In this context, "that which was to be reformed" seems to refer to "that defect of the older order." This, in turn, refers to the

statement, "too many men and women were sent into classrooms without sufficient training in teaching methods." Consequently, the sentence apparently asserts that the reform has devoured "too many men and women [who] were sent into classrooms without sufficient training in teaching methods." The use of the term "devoured" is obviously figurative, but is this sentence an example of good diction?

The sample paragraph quoted above from Mr. Lynd's book was not originally selected for the purpose of raising questions about its clarity. In that respect, it is not typical of his writing. The Scriptures have, as usual, a relevant passage in James 3:1–2:

> Be not many of you teachers, my brethren, knowing that we shall receive heavier judgment.
>
> For in many things we all stumble. If any stumbleth not in word, the same is a perfect man, able to bridle the whole body also.

More than a year ago Theodore C. Blegen, professor of history and dean of the Graduate School of the University of Minnesota, gave the keynote address of a conference at Duke University. He spoke on the subject "Toward a Common Front," suggesting that "subject-matter" specialists and those who represent "professional education" should "find constructive ways in which American education can mobilize a working partnership between subject matter and profession, with respect by each for the contributions of the other."

Dean Blegen dealt with the issues broadly and dispassionately. His address was published in *The Duke University Centennial Conference on Teacher Training* (Historical Papers of the Trinity College Historical Society, Series XXX. Edited by William H. Cartwright and William B. Hamilton. Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press, 1953). In the passage quoted below, Blegen comments on the particular issue of the distribution of credits in a teacher-training program:

> There is a clear need of viewing, quietly and unemotionally, the facts of the alleged "stranglehold" of education over subject matter. Any profession, whether it be education or medicine, that leagues law on its side in statutes of certification, courts the danger of inflexibility, complacency, and the static mood of a conservatively protected empire. This is one of the disquieting elements in specialization and the professionalizing of a given domain of work and service, and education is not immune to its toxic effects. On the other hand, as I look at the requirements of education in the university I know best, I find myself startled at the screams of fear that I hear across the land. The truth is that the prospective high-school teacher of academic subjects earns about 186 quarter credits, of which some 40 to 70 fall in a major field—a subject-matter field—and some 29 in the grand total of 186 are required in professional education. These center in the study of child development, the problems of adolescents, the meaning of education, the nature of the learning process, ways of measuring progress in learning, and supervised practice in teaching.
>
> For the prospective teacher of children, with her reasonably good grounding in subject matter, this proportion devoted to what one may call professional training seems somewhat less than shocking. Critical ap-

praisal should be directed, as in the case of any subject-matter field, to the values in these subjects themselves rather than to their supposed threat of strangling subject matter. This is the sort of question that calls, not for emotion, but for cool and mature weighing as to whether such plans afford too much—or not enough—time for these areas of a teacher's preparation for her lifework. I do not assert that there may not be strangling of subject matter in some institutions or states, but I cannot find it in my own.

A useful exercise for other commentators on this issue would be to make a comparable analysis, each for his own institution or state, before ascending the platform or releasing his manuscript. It is regrettable that statements by responsible scholars like Dean Blegen are so likely to be ignored by critics of current educational policy. Educators do not resent criticism that is objective. Quite understandably they do resent and reject statements concerning them that are, to borrow another phrase from Dean Blegen's article, "patent distortions of actualities."

The second assertion made in the quotation from the article by Bestor in *School and Society* is that there is anti-intellectualism in much of public education today. Lynd also finds this notion congenial. Is it the students who are anti-intellectual, or their teachers, or the professors of education, or all of these groups?

A basis for the alleged anti-intellectualism may exist if fewer students than should be are studying subjects like algebra, chemistry, English, history, Latin, and physics. This situation can arise because many students are not intellectually inclined and avoid, if possible, subjects like those listed. It can arise if capable students are not encouraged or required to take work of this type or if school authorities unwisely tell students they should not take such courses. There is some inefficiency in every profession. Unquestionably, such advice is sometimes given, but how frequently?

Everyone who has given any attention to problems in the field of secondary education knows that the total enrolment figure in the United States today is about ten times what it was in 1900. The data that disturb a good many persons are those that show notable decreases since 1900 in the per cent of students in school who are taking the "academic" subjects. For example, according to the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States—1948–50*, chapter v, Table 7, in the year 1900, about 56 per cent of the children in public high schools were enrolled in algebra. By 1949 this figure had changed to about 27 per cent. The change for physics was from 19 per cent in 1900 to 5.4 per cent in 1949. Many persons are surprised to learn that the number of students studying Latin in 1949 was more than one-and-a-half times as great as the number in 1900. However, the corresponding per cents, with number of students in school taken as a base, changed from 50.6 in 1900 to 7.8 in 1949.

There are exceptions to this trend.

In 1900, 7.7 per cent of the students in high schools were enrolled in chemistry. In 1949 the per cent was about the same. History was studied by 38.2 per cent of the students in public high schools in 1900. In 1949 the figure was about the same, with 39.1 per cent studying courses officially labeled "history." In addition, more than a million students were enrolled in other courses in the social sciences, such as economics. Enrolments in English included 38.5 per cent of the students in 1900. By 1949 this figure had increased to 92.9 per cent. Many courses not in the curriculum in 1900 have been introduced and attracted students in increasing numbers. The existence of these changes is so well known that the recital of them here might be used as an example of the "trivia" to which "Educators" are said to be addicted.

In short, the total enrolment figures increased, and the high schools became less selective. Many students were found to have little ability and no appetite for intellectual pursuits. Many new courses and activities of "nonacademic" type were introduced and became popular. The per cents of the student body enrolled in several of the academic subjects declined. To some observers, in schools and out, the schools appear to have become "anti-intellectual."

There is another way to look at the enrolment data. The base for each of the calculations above was the total number of students in the last four years of public secondary day schools for the year specified. Suppose the country's total population ranging from fourteen to seventeen years in age is used as the base.[1] The resulting per cents give an indication of the extent to which the public schools have made the study of academic subjects available to the *total youth population of appropriate age.*

In 1900, 4.7 per cent of that population were enrolled in algebra. In 1949 the figure had *increased* to 17 per cent. In 1900, 1.6 per cent of the specified population were taking physics; in 1949, the figure was 3.4 per cent. Even Latin, which was taken by 4.3 per cent in 1900, increased to 4.9 per cent in recent years. It is true that in the twenties and thirties the per cents for Latin rose to nearly 8 and then fell off rapidly. At the same time the modern foreign languages, especially French and Spanish, were enrolling large numbers of students. The changes for chemistry were from less than 1 per cent to 4.8 per cent; for history, from 3.2 per cent to 25 per cent; for English, from 3.2 per cent to 59 per cent. These and other academic and intellectual subjects are today actually being taught to much larger parts of the total population than they were in 1900. Is this evidence of "anti-intellectualism"? And is this alarming?

Now, these data do not by any means show that all who should be

[1] The data needed for estimating the population may be found in "Statistical Summary of Education," Table 16, *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States—1948–50*, chap. i. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1953.

studying the academic subjects are doing so. They do raise a question about claims of anti-intellectualism based on declines in enrolments for academic courses in relation to the total enrolment of the high schools.

Many observers, both within and outside the teaching profession, believe the schools have so softened content and so relaxed standards that the educational program as a whole has been weakened. There is much discussion of the neglect of the bright students, now that some adjustments have been made for those at the other end of the ability distribution. This widespread concern over the neglect of the bright students can hardly be considered anti-intellectualism.

In actual practice, however, one is likely even today to find many students in classes where the intellectual demands seem to exceed the students' intellectual powers and interests. Teacher after teacher may be observed trying to arouse the interest of these students, or to pull them by one means or another along the rugged paths of learning, with a zeal for teaching subject matter that can hardly be attributed to anti-intellectualism. Most of these reluctant learners are representatives of the group that the schools formerly did not reach.

Not all the changes in content and method in recent years—the "softening" and "lowering" of standards—have been made with this group alone in mind. Some of the changes stem from new insight into the nature of the learning process. Some changes are reflections of modern developments in the basic subject fields, such as the increasing tendency of physics and chemistry to become less distinguishable. Other changes, such as the increasing use of audio-visual aids, are in part consequences of modern technology. In spite of these and other changes, a regular observer in a typical high school is likely to decide that the reforms of the past few decades have been far from drastic. This view is well expressed by Maurice R. Ahrens, director of curriculum of the Corpus Christi, Texas, public schools, who reviewed Mr. Lynd's book in the *Saturday Review* for September 12, 1953. Dr. Ahrens writes as follows:

> If Mr. Lynd had taken the time to visit public schools himself, as thousands of parents are doing daily, and so become intimately acquainted with current educational practices in the classrooms of America, he would have discovered that fundamentally education has changed but little in the last half-century. He would recognize that education has probably changed less than any other institution in our country. There have been improvements, of course, particularly in methods of teaching, but essentially the same subjects are being taught that were taught fifty years ago. Educators are still devoting a major portion of their time to discovering better ways of teaching the tools of learning—the three R's—and will undoubtedly continue to do so. Although attempts are being made continuously to introduce a wide use of diversified materials, classroom instruction is still largely dependent upon textbooks which, although somewhat improved, are similar in organization and content to the textbooks of a half-century ago.

Finally, there is the alleged deterioration in the amount of knowledge and skill possessed by high-school students of today when compared with that possessed by students of the past. The evidence that exists neither supports nor refutes this assertion in a convincing manner. It is an issue which, if it ever can be settled, can only be decided in terms of well-defined groups of students and by means of carefully designed statistical studies. Failure occurred in the past and will continue to occur in the future. The citing of individual examples of weaknesses or failures of modern students may suggest hypotheses, but it does not constitute proof. As has often been pointed out, the methods of the scientist and those of the "ordinary man" part company just at this point.

Men and women in positions of responsible leadership in American education have repeatedly stated goals for the schools. These statements are anti-intellectual only if the specifications of minimum essentials for effective citizenship, in the broad sense, are taken as descriptive of adequate achievement for all students. The efforts to bring about a better fit between students and curriculum are not, in themselves, anti-intellectual. The indictment of "anti-intellectualism" springs from a partial view of the situation. Most of the objective data that may support the complaint come from examples of policies and practices that are regularly repudiated by a majority in the profession itself.

Anti-intellectualism, if widespread, would be alarming. The unqualified assertion that there is anti-intellectualism in much of public education today is a distortion. The unqualified assertion of critics of the schools that the delegation of the preparation of teachers to departments of education is the principal cause of the alleged anti-intellectualism is also a distortion. These together constitute a double distortion. The product of two negative numbers is a positive number, but a double distortion is seldom a true picture of a situation.

These comments have dealt with a limited portion of the territory which is being disputed. Dean Blegen, early in his address at Duke University, stated a view to which we all might well subscribe. He said:

> The time has come in American education for the scholars of subject-matter specialization and those who profess professional education to find common ground and to grapple unitedly with the problems of education that are crucial to the oncoming generations of our people. Misunderstandings, where they befog the scene, should be swept away. Weakness, where it is discerned, should lead, not to epithets, but to efforts to build strength. Bases for mutual confidence and co-operation should be looked for. If there is alignment into enemy camps, why not mutually explore assumed reasons for hostility and make sure that we have, in truth, picked the right enemies to fight?

Better Utilization of the Teacher's Time

Representatives of education were among sixty-six leaders in various fields who attended a conference on utilization of scientific and pro-

fessional manpower on October 7–11, 1953. The conference was sponsored by the National Manpower Council, a group of sixteen distinguished citizens set up by Columbia University in 1951 under a grant from the Ford Foundation.

A group of educators, under the chairmanship of Charles S. Johnson, president of Fisk University, worked at the conference on the problem of utilization of teaching personnel. The following were among their recommendations:

> Relieve the teacher of routine clerical tasks, such as keeping attendance records, and of certain disciplinary responsibilities, such as supervising study halls and lunchrooms. Sub-professional personnel can assume responsibilities of this kind. More ambitious use can also be made of student assistants. Films and television offer an opportunity for relieving the teacher of some work in classroom instruction so that he is freer to spend more time with individual pupils. Teacher teams composed of master-teachers and professional assistants might make it possible for the same number of teachers to handle a greater number of students and even improve the quality of instruction.
>
> Various ways of improving the utilization of teachers have been tried in different communities. One obvious need is for a clearinghouse arrangement through which educators could become acquainted with developments in other school systems.

Teachers will certainly welcome any administrative adjustments that will simplify their job and permit them to devote their full attention to teaching. Several of the suggestions above are of that type. The proposal relative to the use of films and television is of a different type. Films and television programs to be viewed by the pupils should be closely related to their studies, and not just time-fillers. If these aids are to be used effectively, teacher and pupils will often need to make certain preparations in advance of the viewing. They will also want to discuss and evaluate the experience as soon as possible afterward. Under these circumstances, the notion that any teacher's time can be saved may be a delusion.

The use of films and television programs, even at the expense of more rather than less expenditure of a teacher's time, is justified when these media bring to the students situations and types of experiences that would otherwise be inaccessible.

An example of an emergency but apparently effective use of television occurred in Baltimore in January, 1953. A strike involving school firemen and engineers closed the schools for a week. The May, 1953, number of the *Baltimore Bulletin of Education* describes how school personnel and television stations combined forces to offer a great variety of learning experiences via TV. It was hardly necessary to state, as one article does, that "our usual procedure of classroom orientation to TV and radio programs could not be given."

The desirability of providing preparatory and follow-up experiences in connection with the use of films may, however, be overstressed. Modern educational films do a much better job of teaching than did those produced in

the early days of motion pictures. Some are so specific in their objectives that, if they are used at the proper time, no teacher supervision at all should be needed. It would be useful if reviews and annotated lists of films would consistently state whether or not the film can be used "raw," so to speak. Perhaps this information is now supplied, but, if so, the writer is not aware of it. Some, and perhaps a majority, of the films and television programs still need to be introduced and followed up carefully, but the teacher's time will be saved if even a few of those used do not. In these days pupils and public should be ready to accept the idea that good instruction is being provided even if the experienced teacher is not always in front of the class, explaining, asking questions, and giving directions.

A Modified Schedule in a Small High School

High-school students in Rockland, Idaho, work on a single subject from 9 A.M. to 12 noon, daily. The school year is divided into three terms of twelve weeks, and a typical Sophomore may concentrate on biology the first term, English the second term, and world history the third term. The afternoon program consists of four regular periods of forty-two minutes each, continuing throughout the year. The Sophomore mentioned above may take his mathematics in one of these periods, have a study period, and spend the rest of his time in physical education and courses elected from a variety of fields, including music, arts and crafts, and typewriting.

The superintendent of schools, T. H. Bell, believes this type of schedule has many points in its favor. As is the case with any extended period, it provides greater flexibility for teachers and students. In a communication to the *School Review*, Mr. Bell writes:

> The instructor endeavors to have a varied type of learning activity during the three-hour class period. A chemistry teacher may teach some new material and then move to the laboratory immediately after instruction has been given. The material is then dynamically demonstrated to the student and *by the student* through the use of laboratory apparatus. The class may then return to the classroom where the results of the experiment can be discussed. Misconceptions of the results of the experiments and important factors to be remembered can then be stressed while the material is fresh in the minds of the students. Through a short test or oral discussion, the effectiveness of learning and teaching can then be checked and corrections made and points emphasized where necessary. This can all be done during one concentrated span of three hours of learning activity. There are no interruptions.

Mr. Bell summarizes the advantages of the program, after three years of operation, in the following terms:

1. Our students, as far as can be determined in such a short time, have been successful at college.
2. Students who have taken courses under both systems of time allotment prefer the three-hour type program for their solid subjects.
3. There has been a decrease in the number of students who have failed their college-entrance examinations.

4. Our instructors claim that they cover more material more effectively, during the allotted time in the course.

5. Our students appear to enjoy each school day more fully, and there seems to be a decrease in the number of students with serious adjustment problems.

6. There has been a marked decrease in the average daily absence in the school.

7. Cases of students dropping out of school before graduating have become practically nonexistent.

Rockland High School is small. Only about sixty students are enrolled, and there are five teachers. Difficulties in operating this schedule might be serious in larger schools where the teacher-pupil ratio is larger. One often wonders, however, why small high schools so often try to operate a schedule that is structurally the same as the schedule used in large schools.

The Mental Measurements Yearbook

Fortunately for progress, there are a few men in every generation who see a vision and are so inexorably persistent that they bring it to reality. Professor Oscar Krisen Buros of Rutgers University, editor of *The Fourth Mental Measurements Yearbook*, is one of these men. Fifteen years ago there was no comprehensive source to which to turn for critical reviews of tests and other evaluation instruments. Professor Buros thought there ought to be one and in 1938 published the first book of this kind. The most recent volume in the series, covering the period 1948 through 1951, supplements rather than supplants the earlier numbers of the series.

In his Preface Professor Buros says the book is "designed to assist test users in education, industry, psychiatry, and psychology to locate and to evaluate tests and books on testing." It is, in fact, an almost indispensable reference for many workers in these fields. The editorial staff of the *School Review* customarily relies on it for checking data on tests mentioned in the articles published. This editorial writer regularly requires his students in courses on methods of teaching to use the volume in connection with their examination of tests in their fields. Graduate students use it to survey available materials as they plan research projects. The book ought to be in the professional library of every school system for the use of teachers and others who have responsibility for selecting published tests.

Valuable as the book is as a tool, Professor Buros from the beginning has had in mind another value. He hoped that authors and publishers of tests would be stimulated to improve their product, and the several *Mental Measurements Yearbooks* that have been published have undoubtedly been a force in that direction. In general, recently published tests are superior to earlier ones, but it would be difficult to isolate the effects of the critical reviews encouraged by Buros from the effects of other books and developments in the field of educational and psychological measurement.

The Fourth Mental Measurements

Yearbook may be purchased for $18 a copy from the Gryphon Press, 220 Montgomery Street, Highland Park, New Jersey.

Publications for Mathematics Teachers

Two new journals

The growth of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics to a membership of nearly ten thousand teachers, coupled with the election of vigorous leadership, has so strengthened the organization that it has recently announced plans for two new magazines.

Early in 1954 the Council will begin publication of a quarterly journal of special interest to elementary-school teachers. This magazine, to be called the *Arithmetic Teacher*, will be a companion to the older official journal of the organization, namely, the *Mathematics Teacher*. The latter will tend to concentrate on the problems of mathematics-teaching in high schools and colleges.

The Council has also announced the publication of a new magazine for high-school students. For many years secondary-school teachers of mathematics have felt a need for a journal written especially for the student. The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, in co-operation with the Mathematical Association of America, is attempting to meet this need by the publication of a new journal called the *Mathematics Student Journal*.

The new magazine will contain enrichment and recreational material not found in ordinary textbooks. Alert teachers of mathematics have long been aware of the large amount of enriching and stimulating material available on a level not too advanced for high-school students, but the teachers' busy schedules make it difficult to look up this material and prepare it in a form for presentation to students. The new journal will aid teachers wishing to use supplementary enriching materials. A special feature of the journal will be a problem department to which students may contribute both problems and solutions. Because of its nature, the new journal will also appeal to many adults with an interest in mathematics.

The new journal will be issued four times a year, in the months of October, December, February, and April. The first issue will be distributed in February, 1954. The subscription price will be $0.20 a year or $0.15 a semester. Copies will be mailed only in bundles of five or more, since the low subscription price does not permit the mailing of individual copies. Teachers should obtain subscriptions for their students and submit them in a group. All orders in a group should run for the same period of time and be received at the same address. Subscriptions should be addressed to National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Reports on mathematics research

Several years ago the National Council was influential in getting a specialist for mathematics added to the staff of the United

States Office of Education. Dr. Kenneth E. Brown was the first appointee to the position. The fruits of that action, as far as publication is concerned, are now beginning to appear.

"Mathematics Education Research Studies—1952" (Circular No. 377, July, 1953), compiled by Dr. Brown, is an annotated list of investigations in this field. The descriptive material specifies the author, title of the study, degree awarded, year, institution, adviser, problem, procedures, major findings and conclusions. It is therefore more complete than the typical annotated bibliography. Although some of the studies scarcely deserve to be called research, the publication as a whole should be especially useful to supervisors in school systems, to faculty members in teacher-training institutions, and to graduate students. It may be ordered from the Publications Section, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D.C.

Data on mathematics offerings

Mathematics in Public High Schools (United States Office of Education Bulletin 1953, No. 5) was also prepared by Dr. Brown. It is primarily a statistical summary of data obtained from a randomly selected sample of 1,171 public high schools. It includes 60 tables. The primary organization of the discussion is by grade levels. Within each level the offerings, enrolment data, requirements, time allotments, size of classes, and extent of use of field trips are reported. This bulletin may be ordered from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. The price is $0.20 a copy.

Improving the mathematics curriculum

A publication of an entirely different type is *Mathematics for All High School Youth*, issued by the Bureau of Secondary Curriculum Development, State Education Department, Albany, New York. Through "conference-clinics" and in other ways, a thousand persons are said to have collaborated in the making of this report designed to improve basic skills in mathematics. Teachers representing all levels, supervisors, principals, superintendents, nationally known experts, and members of the State Education Department staff were included.

Part One describes the problems and issues that were identified, gives points of views on them, suggests ways and means of meeting difficulties and of readjusting the mathematics program in the high schools. Part Two describes "A Program of Action" based on the suggestions of twelve nationally known experts in mathematical education.

This report has much material of value to anyone in educational work who wants to see the mathematics curriculum improved. It is written in readable style, and there will doubtless be a large demand for it.

MAURICE L. HARTUNG

Who's Who for December

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by Maurice L. Hartung, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago. William H. Emanuel, supervising principal of the Waldo, Wisconsin, public schools, surveys the admissions policies of 138 liberal arts colleges to determine the trends in these policies. Leonard V. Koos, professor of education at the University of Chicago, in the third of three articles on junior high school reorganization describes the early and present trends in the organization of the junior high school curriculum as well as other features of the program, such as extra-class activities and guidance. Carolyn S. Auble, student activities counselor at Indiana University, and Donavon Auble, instructor and research associate in the Institute of Educational Research at the same institution, discuss the results of an investigation to determine the relation between participation in extra-curriculum activities in high school and participation in similar activities in college. Nora Congdon Jenkins, instructor in psychology at Purdue University Center, Columbus, Indiana, reports a study in which far and near vision in boys and girls was correlated with rank in high-school graduating class. Manning M. Pattillo, instructor in education at the University of Chicago and associate secretary of the Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools located at the University of Chicago, and Norman Burns, professor of education at the University of Chicago and secretary of the previously mentioned Commission, present a list of selected references on higher education.

Reviewers of books Edward Sanders, dean of admissions at Pomona College, Claremont, California. Orville E. Peterson, supervisor of secondary education in the public schools of Cincinnati, Ohio. Bernice L. Neugarten, assistant professor, Committee on Human Development, University of Chicago. Burr W. Phillips, professor of history and of education at the University of Wisconsin.

COLLEGE-ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS TEN YEARS AFTER THE EIGHT-YEAR STUDY

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COLLEGE-ENTRANCE requirements have been the subject of unnumbered articles and books, and varied opinions have been expressed by men in all walks of life, both inside and outside the educational realm. Numerous research projects have been devoted to the problem. Recently the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges has taken renewed interest in the articulation of secondary school and college, to the extent that a Committee on High School–College Relations was appointed to study the problem. In a preliminary report by this committee, J. Andrew Holley stated: "The question as to what has happened since the Eight-Year Study needs further study."[1]

Almost every conscientious student of secondary education has read at least the summary volume of the Eight-Year Study.[2] An outgrowth of the 1930 spring convention of the Progressive Education Association, the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the association undertook the Eight-Year Study to test the hypothesis that satisfactory work in the liberal arts college is not dependent upon certain prescribed subjects in the secondary school. Hailed by many educators as the most significant study ever conducted in the field of high-school–college relations, the research project passed an anniversary in 1952; the report of the study had been published exactly a decade earlier.

No attempt will be made here to summarize or elaborate on the findings. Suffice it to say that the profoundness of the Eight-Year Study should well have been a powerful force in molding entrance-requirement policy in the last ten years. Is this, however, the case? For the present at least, a negative answer must be reported.

The present study was undertaken

[1] J. Andrew Holley, "Report of the Committee on High School–College Relations," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXV (October, 1950), 229. For the complete report, see Manning M. Pattillo, Jr., and Lorence Stout, "Co-operation between Secondary Schools and Colleges," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXV (January, 1951), 313–45.

[2] Wilford M. Aikin, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study*. Adventure in American Education, Vol. I. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942.

for two purposes: (1) to determine the trends in academic entrance requirements of liberal arts colleges since the publication of the Eight-Year Study and (2) to determine what factors have been responsible for these trends, particularly the extent to which the Eight-Year Study affected the trends.

THE PROBLEM

The subject of college-entrance requirements in general is so broad in scope that this project was of necessity limited to the "academic" phase. This limitation was logical since the primary interest here was how entrance requirements might affect the secondary school and its curriculum.

In this light, then, the initial part of the problem resolved itself into three basic questions: (1) Did a particular college have two or more alternate plans of admission? (2) What was the total number of high-school credits required? (3) How many units, if any, were required in specific subjects? The investigation covered the decade 1940–50.

The remainder of the investigation involved determining the extent to which the implications of the Eight-Year Study have been applied by liberal arts colleges. The inference was not drawn that the Eight-Year Study was alone responsible for entrance-requirement trends. Other possible influences, such as the Harvard report, the Michigan college agreement, the Southern Association study, and studies conducted by individual institutions have also been thoroughly investigated.

PROCEDURES

For a clearer understanding of the nature of the problem, the history and trends of college-entrance requirements from early times were obtained from previous research in the field. In 1941 the United States Office of Education published a handbook, edited by William W. Hinckley,[3] which listed the complete entrance requirements of 674 colleges and universities throughout the country. From these statistics the exact entrance requirements which were the vogue at the time of the completion of the Eight-Year Study were established.

Only liberal arts colleges with enrolments of 500–1,500 students were considered in the present study. It was believed that this restriction would limit the study to a relatively homogeneous group of colleges.

A combination schedule-questionnaire was used to gather the data. From an analysis of college bulletins, the entrance requirements as they existed in 1950 were ascertained. In order to avoid personal errors of interpretation, the data were plotted on a schedule and sent to the directors of admission of the various colleges for verification and correction.

In addition, several questions were asked of these executives, the replies to which formed the basis of the second phase of the study. The purpose

[3] William W. Hinckley, *Handbook of College Entrance Requirements*. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1941, No. 13.

of these questions was to ascertain what factors were responsible for the alterations, if any, in the entrance requirements to their respective institutions. The questions asked of the college admissions officers were of the "free-association" type, for it was felt that the data thus gathered would probably be more reliable than would answers obtained on a "check list."

Of course, admissions officers are not responsible for setting up the policy on college entrance, but, since they are most familiar with the requirements, it was felt that they were the officials who could most easily supply the information desired.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

On the basis of the statistics gathered and tabulated from the current bulletins of 138 liberal arts colleges located in all sections of the country and verified by each institution, the following conclusions regarding the status of formal entrance requirements in 1950 have been reached.

1. Plans of admission to liberal arts colleges continue to follow a more or less definite plan which history has handed down and which has been adopted with minor variations by a majority of the colleges.

2. The high-school transcript remains the most popular source of data on which college admission is based.

3. Rank in the high-school graduating class is a vital aspect of admissions; it is currently requested by 27 per cent of the colleges in this sample.

4. One-fourth of the liberal arts colleges in this sample make no provision for admitting graduates of non-accredited schools.

5. Currently, 63 per cent of these colleges make no provision for students who have not graduated from high school.

6. Specific subjects are held in high esteem by many colleges. English is a requirement of 73 per cent of the colleges in this sample; mathematics, of 62 per cent; foreign language, of 36 per cent; science, of 35 per cent; and social studies, of 46 per cent.

7. Twenty-one per cent of these colleges will admit students with subject-matter deficiencies, but such deficiencies must be removed in college.

8. A requirement of fifteen units represents the most popular prescription of total number of high-school units required for admission.

9. At present, 50 per cent of the liberal arts colleges in the sample maintain a limit on the number of vocational units acceptable for admission.

BASIC CHANGES

Table 1 indicates that in the past decade the following basic changes have occurred in the field of college-entrance requirements.

1. Of the number of institutions tabulated, 7 per cent made no subject-matter requirements in 1940 and maintain none in 1950.

2. In the past decade 16 per cent of these colleges have completely abolished specific subject-matter requirements.

3. An additional 23 per cent have

in some manner and to some degree lowered specific subject requirements in one or more fields.

4. Eight per cent found it necessary to raise entrance standards in the past ten years.

5. New methods of admission were adopted by an additional 5 per cent of the colleges.

6. The largest per cent (41) made no alterations whatsoever in entrance requirements in the past decade.

TABLE 1

BASIC CHANGES IN ACADEMIC ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS MADE BY 138 LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES OVER THE DECADE 1940–50

Nature of Change	Number of Colleges	Per Cent of Colleges
Maintained no subject-matter requirements initially	10	7
Subject-matter unit requirements abolished	22	16
Lowered requirements in one or more subjects	32	23
Raised academic requirements in some manner	11	8
Changes made in admission methods	6	5
No changes made	57	41
Total	138	100

A more detailed comparison of the statistics reveals the prominent trends over the decade.

1. There is a general tendency toward a more liberal policy and less stringent academic requirements.

2. Qualitative methods of stating entrance requirements have resulted in a decrease in the per cent of institutions which currently maintain more than one method of admission.

3. There have been significant decreases in the per cent of colleges which request units in English, mathematics, foreign language, and social studies.

REASONS FOR CHANGES IN REQUIREMENTS

Raising requirements.—From an examination of the replies of seventeen liberal arts colleges concerning the reason for raising entrance standards or changing admissions methods in the past decade, the following remarks seem pertinent. Three colleges stated that the reason for raising entrance requirements was doubt regarding the validity of secondary-school marks, resulting in a need for tests on the fundamentals. Three of the colleges which raised standards did so in an effort to decrease their mortality rate. Increased enrolments caused four colleges to raise standards in the past decade. One changed because of a desire for "a common denominator for a guidance program" and one because of a desire for additional information. Five failed to respond to the question.

Making no changes.—The most frequently occurring reason for the maintenance of standards was listed (by nineteen colleges) as the feeling that entrance requirements were quite satisfactory and no need was seen for change. The fact that over one-third (22) of the colleges which did nothing in the way of changing entrance requirements in the past ten years either refused or failed to answer the question asking the "why" of their actions may be significant.

There was evidence that the regional accrediting agency holds sway over some colleges and the opinions of both the state department of education and the state university were cited by colleges. One institution stated that specific subject units were found to be necessary for college success.

Lowering requirements.—Table 2 gives the reasons cited by sixty-four colleges which initially maintained no specific subject requirements or which had abolished or lowered such requirements. The significant findings are summarized below.

1. Undoubtedly, the most significant conclusion warranted by the findings of the present study is that the "tail is no longer wagging the dog," or at least not so vigorously; for nearly a third of the colleges which lowered requirements were forced to do so because the high schools no longer offered the courses which were historically requested.

2. Ranking second in frequency as a factor in maintaining no subject requirements is the fact the colleges have found that high-school marks or scholastic aptitude or a combination of the two are better indicators of probable college success than is any pattern of high-school studies.

3. Eleven per cent of the colleges are convinced that high schools have raised standards and consequently are making better candidates available.

4. As an explicitly stated reason for using no admission units, the implications of the Eight-Year Study have a rank of 5.5.

5. Having the identical rank as the statement about the Eight-Year Study is the statement that changes were the result of recommendations of the state department of education and the state university.

TABLE 2

REASONS GIVEN BY 64 LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES FOR MAINTAINING NO SUBJECT-MATTER REQUIREMENTS OR FOR ABOLISHING OR LOWERING THEM OVER THE DECADE 1940–50*

Reason Stated	Number of Colleges	Per Cent of Colleges
1. High schools no longer offer the subjects required	20	31.3
2. Experience that pattern of high-school subjects has little effect on college work	9	14.1
3. Raised high-school standards make better candidates available	7	10.9
4. Desire to allow high schools more freedom	5	7.8
5. Implications of the Eight-Year Study	4	6.3
6. Recommendation of state department or state university	4	6.3
7. Michigan college agreement	3	4.7
8. War and postwar conditions	3	4.7
9. Following general trend of other colleges in the region	2	3.1
10. Recommendation of accrediting agency	1	1.5
11. Desire to make education a continuous process	1	1.5
12. General policy has always been to make requirements less rigid	1	1.5
13. No response given	4	6.3
Total	64	100.0

* The 64 colleges tabulated in this table represent 46 per cent of the 138 colleges used in the study.

6. Seventy-five per cent of the colleges in the state of Michigan which returned the questionnaire listed the Michigan college agreement as the reason for lowering academic entrance standards.

7. A significant factor in the trend toward lowering entrance requirements has been the success of veterans of World War II who were admitted to college, not on the basis of traditional entrance criteria, but primarily on their ability as witnessed by their performance on the General Educational Development Tests.

CONCLUSION

The data here presented reveal many stumbling blocks which, if removed or remedied, would advance to a more suitable plane the articulation of secondary school and college. On the basis of the findings regarding present admission policies, recent trends, and responsible influences, the following statements pertinent to the secondary school are warranted. College-entrance requirements are apparently not dominating the high-school curriculum to the extent that they have been charged with doing. When curriculum revision is deemed necessary, the welfare of the total student body should take precedence over college demands. Leadership in educational reform may well be initiated in secondary schools; many colleges have in the past adjusted their programs to the changing curriculums in the secondary school and the colleges will probably continue to make such adjustments. Secondary schools may no longer hide behind the smoke screen of college-entrance demands but should be encouraged to provide functional education for all youth.

According to the findings, leadership originating within the states is very effective. Should a need arise for changes in educational policy, the cooperation of the educational agencies in each state should by all means be enlisted.

The success of the thousands of veterans of World War II has been a significant factor in liberalizing admission policies in the past decade. All liberal arts colleges should be encouraged to re-examine their philosophies in light of the achievement of these men and women.

Every effort should be made to publicize and re-publicize the findings and implications of notable research projects, such as the Eight-Year Study. The lack of comprehensive information regarding the results of the Eight-Year Study on the part of admissions officers of liberal arts colleges may well account for the fact that it failed to receive explicit mention as a force in molding entrance-requirement philosophy since its publication. However, the statistical data may not tell the entire story of the influences of the study. There is a strong possibility that, unknown to the admissions officers, the indirect influences of that study have been much stronger than the direct ones. It is well within the realm of probability that the implications of the study furnished the initial spark stimulating college administrators and faculties to do some reflective thinking which has subsequently altered admission policies. At any rate, it is hoped that such is the case, lest the noble efforts of the many minds which contributed to the success of the Eight-Year Study be to little avail.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL REORGANIZATION AFTER A HALF-CENTURY

III. The Curriculum and Other Features

LEONARD V. KOOS
University of Chicago

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ORGANIZATION OF THE CURRICULUM

THE CURRICULUM of the school is assumed to be its most important feature for service to those in attendance. This must be no less true of reorganized schools than of schools with the traditional grouping of grades, and it is therefore important to know what changes have been wrought in the curriculum organization, or the program of studies, through the reorganization here under review.[1]

Earlier trends.—It was not to be expected that the curriculum suitable for junior high school grades would arrive full-blown at the inception of the movement, and there was considerable fumbling and floundering during the early stages of reorganization. With only a consciousness of the need of reform and without a spelling-out of the curriculum implications of the new schools' purposes, in many situations the curriculum arrangements of the corresponding grades of the traditional organization were taken over bodily or with only minor modifications. This meant that in Grades VII and VIII the first curriculums consisted typically of the usual array of elementary-school subjects, such as reading, grammar, composition, spelling, penmanship, arithmetic, geography, American history, physiology and hygiene, and the like, and that in Grade IX the curriculum was made up of the usual subjects for the first high-school year, such as English, algebra, foreign language, and general science. Thus, from Grade VIII to Grade IX there was often the conventional sudden shift from the piecemeal curriculum of many subjects to the four-unit arrangement characteristic of the high school.

Even during the earlier years, however, there was awareness of the need of replacing this traditional offering by one with vertical integration and better adaptation to the needs of youth, and instances of efforts at improvement soon multiplied. These efforts are reflected in the conclusions

[1] Part I of this article, describing "Growth and Status of Reorganization" appeared in the October, 1953, issue of the *School Review*. Part II, "Purposes of, and Grade-Grouping for, Reorganization," appeared in the November, 1953, issue.

from investigations made for the National Survey of Secondary Education, which analyzed the programs of studies in large numbers of junior high school situations. We may be sure that the changes found in these investigations were actually trends because they are based on practices in identical groups of schools and systems at different intervals. The trends as here summarized are most of those emerging up to about 1930.[2]

1. One of the most noticeable trends was the gain of nonacademic subjects, such as the fine and practical arts, commercial subjects, and physical education, at the expense of academic subjects. This trend involved signal enrichment of the offering. The one academic field to experience notable gains was that of the social studies.

2. A trend in harmony with extension of the offering in the social studies was the increased emphasis given to what the report of the National Survey called "social-integrative activities," that is, home-room activities, clubs, group-guidance activities, and the activities of the assembly or auditorium. These were found to be increasingly scheduled as parts of the regular school day and were given larger allotments of time. They will be touched on again in referring to the extra-curriculum.

3. Largest increments in the *required* portions of the curriculum went to the social studies, physical education, and the social-integrative activities.

4. Considerable progress was being made toward a *vertically* integrated program, that is, a program that showed no sudden shift from Grade VIII to Grade IX.

5. One of the most pronounced trends in junior high school programs up to 1930 was the displacement of specialized by more general courses. In English this displacement was reflected in the rapid disappearance of courses with such names as "grammar," "composition," "reading," "spelling," and "penmanship" and the appearance in their place of courses reported simply as "English" or, at most, of courses in the two main phases, language and literature. In the social studies the displacement was shown in the dropping-out of many courses designated "geography," "United States history," and "community civics" and the use simply of the term "social studies." The substitution of the term must have meant, to be sure, widely varying degrees of fusion of the older courses represented. In mathematics, courses in arithmetic in Grades VII and VIII and algebra in Grade IX were giving place to "general mathematics" in all three grades. Having much in common with the movement toward general courses in the more academic fields was the trend toward development of courses of more general and composite makeup in home economics, industrial arts, commerce, and the fine arts.

[2] Leonard V. Koos, "Trends in Secondary-School Programs of Studies," *School Review*, XLI (September, 1933), 497–507.

These and other trends warrant the conclusion which was generalized from the inquiries: that the junior high school was serving as a vehicle of curriculum innovation.

More recent trends.—The most significant curriculum trend in reorganized schools since 1930 may be derived not so much from the study of the junior high school itself as from a study of the incidence of one prominent salient of recent curriculum reform, namely, the core curriculum. It may be pointed out in advance of summarizing the evidence that, in essence, the changes embodied in the core curriculum are virtually a continuation and extension, that is, an enhancement, of the trends toward vertical and horizontal integration that were already on the way by 1930 in junior high schools.

For certain primary facts concerning the core curriculum we are indebted to a bulletin on the subject from the Office of Education.[3] The Foreword to the report expresses the belief that the Bulletin "represents the first specific attempt to provide a systematic picture of the status of the core curriculum in the country."[4] In reporting the types of schools found to have a core program, this bulletin states frankly that it "is still confined largely to the junior high school grades and therefore is more often found in junior and undivided high schools than in regular and senior high schools."[5] This interpretation is fully borne out by the tabulation of grades in which the core courses are offered. In a total of 545 schools represented, 380 core programs, or almost 70 per cent, were reported in Grade VII (108), Grade VIII (27), Grades VII–VIII (126), Grades VII–IX (107), and Grades VII–X (12). The three most frequent subject combinations, in a total of 1,119, were English and social studies (813); English, social studies, and science (75); and English, social studies, and mathematics (46). Many other combinations appeared less frequently.[6] Touching on the extent of horizontal integration, the bulletin states:

> It is probably safe to say that the schools represented run the gamut from a core in which there is a minimum of correlation of traditional subject matter, to that which disregards conventional subject-matter lines and is developed around centers of interest selected by pupils and teacher planning together.[7]

Time allotment to the cores was most often ten (five double) periods per week (67.8 per cent), and in more than 90 per cent of the schools it was from ten to fifteen periods, inclusive.

No report is extant concerning the prevalence of the core curriculum in the upper grades of eight-year elementary schools. The practice is known to be followed to some extent in them. To the degree that this is so, credit should be reflected on junior high

[3] Grace S. Wright, *Core Curriculum in Public High Schools: An Inquiry into Practices, 1949.* United States Office of Education Bulletin 1950, No. 5.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. iv.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 6. [6] *Ibid.*, p. 13. [7] *Ibid.*, p. 4.

school reorganization, since the movement for horizontal integration of the curriculum was initiated there.

To illustrate what may approximate the maximal extent of development of the core program, quotation is made here from a letter received by the present writer in March, 1951, from the principal of a midwestern junior high school. The letter also reports the several steps taken toward such a far-reaching realignment of the curriculum. It is well to remember that only a few schools have carried the core curriculum so far as the letter reports.

> In 1936 our school began the development of a core curriculum. This core was built around the English and social-studies areas. Since 1945 there have been no separate English or social-studies classes in our school. The time element for the core program was usually two standard periods, although in some cases it was three or four periods.
>
> In the spring of 1948 our faculty decided to work toward extensive reorganization of our entire program around "general-education" lines. In the paragraphs following there is a brief description of the revision of each grade level.
>
> The seventh-grade reorganization was put into effect in the fall of 1949. At the present time there is a time block of five periods [per day] for general learnings and one period for special subjects of music and art. The general-learning block is planned and carried out by one teacher for one group of children. Teachers plan together some of the work that is done in the general learnings, but most of it is a teacher-pupil planning in the group concerned. The time schedule in the seventh-grade program is quite flexible so as to permit exchange of groups for special projects.
>
> Our eighth-grade program was begun this school year and is centered around three interest groups, which are general education, home living–science, and mathematics. Eighth-grade teachers have made extensive inventories of adolescent needs as revealed in our own groups of children. Our eighth-grade program is still in the process of formation, and we are not sure just yet what modifications will be made next year.
>
> We are busy at the present in the reorganization of our ninth grade for next year. It looks now that we will eliminate all electives as such and try to take care of special needs and interests in a manner somewhat like that of the seventh grade. Two subject areas, mathematics and science, will be retained as separate assignments next year. . . .

A substantial minority of the programs of studies submitted in response to this writer's request to heads of junior high schools reflected varying degrees of the core-curriculum pattern. The majority submitted programs not appearing to reflect this pattern. In general, this majority may be divided into two main groups, with wide variation within each group. One of these groups administers a program made up chiefly of courses given the general designations "English," "social studies," "mathematics," and the like, which were reported above as emerging rapidly in programs up to 1930 and as representing a first long step toward horizontal curriculum integration. The other group still adheres largely in Grades VII and VIII to the piecemeal curriculum traditionally predominant and in Grade IX still reflects the offering in the corresponding grade of the four-year high school.

Illustrative of the first group just mentioned is the curriculum organization of junior high schools in a system in the Far West in which five periods per week in English and in health and physical education are prescribed for all pupils through all three grades; in social studies and mathematics through Grades VII and VIII; in home economics (for girls) and industrial arts (for boys) in Grade VII; and in "Activities," "Guidance," and "Home Room" in all three grades. Elective portions of the offering include two periods of science, art, or music in Grade VII; five periods of science, art, music, home economics, industrial arts, or general language in Grade VIII; and five periods of social studies, mathematics, science, art, music, home economics, industrial arts, "junior business practice," general language, or foreign language (French, Spanish, or Latin) in Grade IX. Because programs of the other group represent the first stage in the development of the junior high school curriculum, they hardly require more illustration than has been provided near the opening of this section on curriculum organization.

Variable portions of the curriculum.—One further noticeable trend in the organization of the program of studies in junior high school grades in reorganized schools should be mentioned: a partial trend away from elective subjects in Grades VII and VIII. The trend was disclosed for the group of schools represented in the National Survey of Secondary Education and was found to be more marked in the lower of these two grades than in Grade VIII.[8] Inspection of the large number of programs of studies submitted recently on request by the writer and other contacts with schools support the belief that this trend has continued since 1930. However, at the same time that opportunity for election of subjects by pupils in Grade VII is now infrequent, *some* leeway for choice of subjects persists in Grade VIII in most schools. The leeway is typically greater in Grade IX than in Grade VIII.

To some persons this shrinkage in variable portions of the program may seem unfortunate in that it tends to reduce the opportunities for exploration implied by the purposes of reorganization. These persons may regret also, on other grounds, any trend toward a fully prescribed curriculum for the early adolescent. It may be said in extenuation that the trend has been in substantial part offset by the trend toward general, or composite, courses which usually afford opportunity for selection by pupils of activities *within* the courses and also by the practice of pupil-teacher co-operation in planning the courses.

RETREAT FROM DEPARTMENTALIZATION

Departmentalization of teaching assignments was, during the early

[8] A. K. Loomis and Edwin S. Lide, *The Program of Studies*, p. 17. National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 19. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1932, No. 17.

stages of the reorganization movement, one of the most highly regarded features of the junior high school. It is a practice borrowed from high-school and college levels and was in some schools almost the only feature of reorganization. An illustration of the extent to which departmentalization was sometimes carried is provided in a study by Steinmetz of teaching assignments in the junior high schools in Chicago (all of them discontinued in 1933). Her figures show that 76.3 per cent—more than three-fourths—of the teachers in those schools taught only a single subject.[9]

However, doubts were sometimes expressed, even during the earlier period, concerning the advisability of complete departmentalization, especially at the lower end of the junior high school. Inglis as long ago as 1918 emphasized the desirability of gradual transition toward departmentalization in order to facilitate adjustment of the pupil.[10] Briggs, identified in the first article of this series as one of the early leaders in the movement, stated that "any bad effects of sudden departmentalization at the beginning of the ninth grade are likely to be worse if introduced two years earlier" and that "a sudden change to full departmental teaching at the beginning of the seventh grade would be a violation of the principle of articulation."[11] The present writer also early called attention to "the better wisdom" of moving "gradually from the one-teacher regimen of the preceding grades, inuring the pupil by degrees to the responsibilities and exigencies" involved.[12]

The trends toward the core curriculum and block-scheduling which have been reviewed embody a marked trend away from complete departmentalization at the junior high school level. A study of core programs in the junior high schools of Washington, where such programs have been encouraged at the state level, is here drawn on to signalize the trend, and the association of the core plan with retreat from extreme departmentalization, and to identify some of the problems involved. On account of the encouragement at the state level, the extent of the development may be assumed to be further along than is typical for the country at large.

The author of the study, Burnett,[13] concludes that "the majority of junior high school administrators in the state of Washington are actively promoting a change from separate-subject departmentalization to core units covering large blocks of time." Of fifty-four responses to inquiries received, forty-six indicate a trend toward a core pro-

[9] Kathryn Steinmetz, "Departmentalization in the Junior High Schools of Chicago," *School Review*, XL (December, 1932), 760–71.

[10] Alexander Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education*, p. 279. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918.

[11] Thomas H. Briggs, *The Junior High School*, p. 110. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920.

[12] Leonard V. Koos, *The Junior High School*, p. 149. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Howe, 1920.

[13] Lewie W. Burnett, "Core Programs in Washington State Junior High Schools," *School Review*, LIX (February, 1951), 97–100.

gram, and the remaining eight schools are equally divided between those reporting a trend away from it and those "moving in neither direction." Thirty-eight of the schools had a definite block of time scheduled for Grade VII, thirty-one for Grade VIII, and thirteen for Grade IX. Burnett reports a "current tendency" in most of the schools to include three periods, or a half-day, in the block, for Grade VII, two periods for Grade VIII, and "straight departmentalization" for Grade IX, although several principals expressed the intention of making the half-day core characteristic of all three grades as rapidly as is feasible.

Burnett also reports the principals as "cautiously" referring to their programs as "block time" rather than core programs. Few of the schools moving into a core-centered program had gone far enough to list such areas as "social living" in place of the conventional subjects. It is Burnett's observation that, to encourage teacher experimentation, some schools have permitted teachers to select their own subject areas as the starting point for this block of time and that, while the combination of social studies and language arts is the most typical, and science and health are often added in the half-day block, any combination is to be expected in schools in which the teachers decide on the combinations.

Among the reasons given by principals for favoring the core program, as reported by Burnett, are that (1) it provides better opportunities for unit-teaching and problem-solving experiences; (2) it promotes better home-room guidance services; (3) it decreases the shuttling-around of students and thus results in greater security for the students; and (4) it insures giving attention to individual student problems, rather than covering just subject-matter material. Although presented on behalf of the core curriculum, which is accompanied by block-time arrangements, it is plausible to expect that these advantages accrue to a degree from block-time arrangements alone. These same principals assert:

> The three great needs of junior high school teachers are an understanding of adolescents and the ability to work with them, the techniques of guidance and home-room leadership, and a balanced background of general education, with the ability to teach in several subject fields.

Of significance for this partial retreat from departmentalization is a similar trend in elementary schools of city school systems as reported by the Research Division of the National Education Association. This agency reports that, while in 1948 departmentalization was in use in one or more elementary schools in "a bare majority" (51 per cent) of the city systems represented, it was "on the way in" in 12 per cent of this majority and "on the way out" in 35 per cent.[14]

[14] *Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948*, p. 16. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXVII, No. 1. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1949.

OTHER FEATURES OF REORGANIZATION

The trends in three additional features only, among a number of others typically regarded as desirable in, or essential to, junior high school reorganization, are briefly reviewed here. These are in the program of extra-class activities, the guidance program, and the program for individual differences. Examination both of recent published literature and of the documents descriptive of practices submitted to the writer on request by administrators reaffirm the conviction that these three programs have been expanded and improved throughout the history of the reorganization movement.

Extra-class program.—Of these three features, the extra-class program was first to become prominent. As already reported above, according to the National Survey of Secondary Education, in which the program was referred to as "social-integrative activities," it was undergoing rapid development up to 1930. It was this writer's observation during his earlier contacts with junior high schools that the extra-curriculum improved more rapidly than did the curriculum. Speculation over the explanation suggests that there was less resistance on the part of teachers to expansion of the extra-curriculum than to change in the curriculum and that the extra-curriculum had the encouragement of the social impulses of adolescence. As early as 1933, an investigator of club activities in about two hundred junior high schools was able to refer to them as "fully matured and well-organized educational enterprises" and to conclude that there was "every evidence that clubs have become an integral part of the educational program of the junior high school."[15]

The typical program includes a wide variety of departmental, publication, school-service, and other clubs; organizations like the Boy and Girl Scouts and Camp Fire Girls; organizations for pupil-participation, like the student council; assembly programs; and, in certain aspects of its activities, the home room. To afford a picture in brief of the present development, two other unmistakable trends in the extra-class program should be mentioned: one is the increased tie-up with the curriculum by regular scheduling and other practices that make it difficult or impossible to distinguish extra-class and class activities, and the other is the operation of the whole program so as to achieve the maximum pupil participation in school control and in experience in the processes of democracy.

Guidance program.—The program of guidance is a feature of junior high school reorganization stemming directly from one of the institution's prominent and inherent purposes. Although there were beginnings in many of the earliest junior units, this feature lagged in its development behind the extra-class program, probably because

[15] William T. Gruhn, "The Administration of Club Activities in the Junior High School," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXV (October, 1934), 114.

of confusion over the concept of guidance and because of lack of understanding of what makes up a suitable guidance program. Recent years have seen a marked enlargement in the personnel for guidance by provision of deans of boys and of girls, counselors, home-room sponsors, and visiting teachers. Activities in guidance have also increased, including the keeping of cumulative records on which are entered a wide array of information concerning pupils (from tests of intelligence, achievement, and personality, as well as data on parental background, extra-class participation, and the like), keeping of anecdotal records, exploratory experiences in class and extra-class activities, group guidance in the home room or elsewhere, individual counseling, and case studies.

The general development of the guidance program has been accompanied by two special trends deserving of note, one of these relating to vocational guidance and the other to the home room and the "social-living" core as avenues of guidance. The early emphasis on guidance concerning occupations has eased off in considerable degree in junior high school grades, owing largely to the longer periods of school attendance which permit postponement of emphasis on the selection of one's lifework to the senior high school and even to the early collegiate level. Many junior high schools, however, have quite properly retained some study of occupations in preliminary aspects for its value in social understanding.

The home room has grown in significance for guidance, especially in schools with block-time arrangements. Often the block-time teacher serves also as home-room adviser and during the time devoted to home-room activities considers with pupils, on a group-guidance basis, matters like vocational opportunities, planning individual educational programs, safety and accident prevention, manners, and development of character. The longer time with the same group of pupils provided by the block-time arrangement, in some schools increased by continuing the teacher with the same home-room group through two or even three years, affords also a natural setting for individual guidance. Schools that substitute the social-living core for mere block-time arrangements—and these are now on the increase—tend to relinquish the home room, although they enhance, rather than reduce, the guidance service through this core.

Program for differentiation.—The program of provisions for individual differences among pupils is like the guidance program in that it stems directly from one of the junior high school's prominent purposes: in this instance, of course, the recognition of individual differences. The two purposes of guidance and of recognition of individual differences are also in many respects complementary, and their achievement is sometimes furthered by similar provisions.

Among the time-honored provisions for individual differences is the coach-

ing of slow pupils. Among the more recent provisions, found often in both reorganized and unreorganized schools, are procedures characterized by the unit assignment and by individualized instruction, which to some extent reduce the need for special coaching.

More distinctive of junior high school reorganization, especially in Grades VII and VIII, is promotion by subject. Further provisions are "opportunity," "remedial," or "adjustment" rooms. Recent evidence[16] finds the controversial practice of ability grouping being followed in a majority of city school systems with about the same proportion of responses reporting it "on the way in" as "on the way out." This evidence is, however, reported irrespective of grade or of type of organization. It is likely that, because of the greater concentration of pupils in junior high schools than in upper grades of eight-year elementary schools, ability grouping would now be found in more junior high schools. One recent trend—the increase of schools operating a social-living core—may be reducing the proportion of junior high schools with ability grouping, as some advocates of the core regard ability grouping as contravening its democratic spirit and function. One can hardly question that the social-living core tends to compensate for losses in individualization through surrender of ability grouping. On the whole, one cannot doubt, from the canvass of the literature, from documents supplied by the schools, and from visits to the schools, that the program for individual differences is still being enlarged and refined.

[16] *Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948*, p. 17. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXVII, No. 1. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1949.

PROSPECTS OF FURTHER REORGANIZATION

A continuously dynamic movement.—During the approximate half-century since its inception in early prototypes, the movement for junior high school reorganization has advanced at a remarkable rate. As already reported, the only periods during the last three decades in which the movement experienced appreciable slowdowns were the years of the great depression and of the clamping-down of priorities for building materials before and during World War II. More recent years have witnessed a re-acceleration which has brought reorganized schools to a stage of predominance over unreorganized schools both in per cent of schools and in per cent of pupils enrolled in high-school grades.

It was to be expected that over so long a period the purposes entertained for reorganized schools would be modified by social and economic trends. Certain "functions" put forward during earlier years, like retention of pupils in school and provision of opportunities for vocational education, have been displaced by the trends that have kept children in school and have advanced the age at which workers are given employment. The essential purposes of reorganization have, however,

persisted. At the center of these is recognition of the needs of youth during early adolescence. In the main, other purposes, among the more prominent being exploration and guidance and the recognition of individual differences, are intimately associated through being corollaries of this central purpose. These purposes are peculiar to the reorganized school to the degree that distinctiveness is determined by the pupils' age level, and it is now admitted that they are appropriate for other age levels and for the same level in schools traditionally organized insofar as it is possible to achieve them there: a spread of these purposes to other levels and other schools has been a major beneficial influence of the reorganization movement.

The patterns of grade-grouping that have made greatest gains are those that place Grades VII–XII together, either on a 3–3 or an undivided basis. Next in frequency come separate junior and senior high schools. Comparative appraisals give some precedence to the grouping in which the six grades are associated (3–3) or integrated, although in systems requiring more units for housing pupils in Grades VII–IX than for pupils in Grades X–XII, the question of preference is to some extent an academic one.

Two other patterns have been advocated and practiced during the last two or three decades. One is the 7–5 plan, occasionally proposed and established in a small number of systems. The other is the 6–4–4 plan now in operation in a number of school systems which have been extended upward to include junior-college years. This pattern has the support of findings of objective inquiry comparing it with other reorganizational patterns. If we accept the preponderant preference of superintendents as indicative, this pattern will come into increasing prominence in practice as school systems are extended upward to include Grades XIII–XIV.[17]

The junior high school curriculum has experienced two main trends, the second succeeding and representing a natural extension of the other. First, the piecemeal curriculum inherited from upper grades of the eight-year elementary school was being replaced up to 1930 in many schools by general courses. This has been followed in numerous schools by the core curriculum, accompanied by block-time arrangements. The second trend is recognizable as a further step toward curriculum integration. At this writing, study of any large number of junior high schools will find three types of curriculum organization—the traditional piecemeal, the general-course, and the core-curriculum plans—although there is wide variation within each type.

Curriculum reorganization has been accompanied by a retreat from departmentalization—a retreat which has been encouraged by block-time

[17] Sebastian V. Martorana, "Superintendents View Plans of Grade Organization," *School Review*, LVIII (May, 1950), 269–76.

arrangements and the core curriculum.

The extra-class program saw early development in junior high schools and has continued to thrive. The program of guidance and provisions for individual differences in junior high schools, reciprocal to each other and backed as they are by acknowledged purposes geared to the nature and needs of the early adolescent, after having lagged somewhat behind development of extra-class activities, are now flourishing. These programs are made up of many elements, one of which, the home room, they have in common. The home room, an almost universal element in junior high school grades, has improved in service through advent of block-time arrangements and is displaced only where the social-living core, which absorbs the functions of the home room, is in operation.

All told, the changes wrought by reorganization, in both the external pattern and the internal arrangements of the schools, mark it as a dynamic movement of great significance, deserving of identification by Allen as a part of *The Big Change*,[18] if only the author of that illuminating survey of social and economic trends of the first half of the twentieth century had included a more comprehensive review of educational changes of the period.

Obstacles to further reorganization.—In the face of a movement so dynamic, speculation turns on the influences that may have in the past prevented it, and may still be preventing it, from making even more rapid strides toward universality. What are the obstacles? Some will here be identified and briefly considered.

Without doubt, a major obstruction in some states is the district organization. This is notably true in California and Illinois, two of our most populous states. The prevailing district maintaining high schools in California is the union high-school district which is autonomous with respect to districts maintaining elementary schools. Junior high school reorganization is practically universal in urban centers with unitary districts in California, but it has made relatively little progress in union high-school districts, notwithstanding a statute providing a procedure by which high schools may take over Grades VII and VIII.

Again, in Illinois (outside Chicago), unitary districts in many urban centers long ago effected junior high school reorganization, while much less progress in this direction has been made in township and community high-school districts by which most high schools are maintained. A small proportion of the stronger elementary-school districts within township high-school districts have gone as far as they can toward thoroughgoing reorganization by establishing junior high schools including Grades VII and VIII only. In such states the existing district organization becomes intrenched and next to impossible to

[18] Frederick Lewis Allen, *The Big Change: America Transforms Itself, 1900–1950*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1952.

dislodge and replace by the unitary district permitting and encouraging reorganization.

Another serious obstacle to junior high school reorganization must be the expectation that junior high school education will prove more costly than education in corresponding grades of the conventional organization. Persons responsible for the leadership that would extend reorganization may be fearful of promoting a plan calling for greater outlays. The best inquiry into junior high school costs, one by Gooch,[19] well-nigh a classic in its field, disclosed that per pupil costs in junior high schools did not run appreciably higher than in corresponding grades of systems with the 8–4 organization. This was because the reorganized schools had often not incorporated more of the features of the "standard junior high school" than had the traditional systems. To this expectation of greater costs for new features and facilities should be added the certainty that reorganization will require new housing, calling for capital outlays and bond issues in what may seem like spectacular amounts. Many administrators otherwise favorable to reorganization are hesitant, in view of the additional costs, to undertake to lead their communities toward commitment to it, especially at a time when cost burdens are mounting even without improvement of school services.

[19] Wilbur I. Gooch, *Junior High School Costs*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 604. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934.

Other obstacles are sometimes cited by persons responsible for leadership for improvement in our school systems, among them the unsuitability of location and capacity of present school buildings, the inflexibility of the existing community and school system, and the like. These obstacles, and even those previously mentioned—district organization and greater costs—may in a sense be explained by ignorance of the advantages of reorganization and/or complacency arising either from ignorance or from a rationalized belief that the disadvantages are somehow being compensated for in traditionally organized schools.

An instance of impediment to reorganization which is certainly not to be explained by ignorance, and at its worst might be near-complacency, is afforded in a recent conversation about the subject with the administrative head of the school system in one of the few larger cities of the country not now committed to junior high school reorganization. The population of the city is not far from a half-million. The system is organized on the 8–4 plan, although a survey by an outside agency years ago recommended junior high school reorganization. The superintendent, before coming to this system, had a record favorable to reorganization, both through discerning writing and constructive leadership in the actual school situation. During the conversation he asserted that his system would not have junior high schools "in the foreseeable future." Reasons given were the pressing need

for accommodations for more pupils in the four-year high schools and the belief he now holds, in common with administrative heads in some other unreorganized systems, that the disadvantages to youth are substantially compensated for by certain improvements in upper grades of eight-year elementary schools. Without doubt, some of the features and facilities accompanying reorganization are applicable to schools in the conventional pattern, but most of them either are out of reach for elementary schools of limited enrolments or would be provided at inordinate cost.

However, even if it proved feasible to instal all features of reorganization in eight-year elementary schools, it would still be urgent to dissociate junior youth from the younger elementary-school children. One of the prevalent pathetic spectacles in 8–4 systems is the incongruity of the compulsory continuous association of overgrown youth with younger children long after the former have outgrown the elementary-school facilities and regimen. This incongruity is analogous to the attire these youth must sometimes continue to wear long after it has been outgrown.

During the first quarter of the century and for some years beyond, junior high school reorganization was being encouraged as a movement somewhat resembling a crusade. The rapid growth was partly interrupted by the great depression and by a world war, both of which had their retarding influence on many other social movements, educational and noneducational. Review of more recent trends finds the movement still dynamic but deserving of some revival of the crusading spirit of the earlier period. Heightened encouragement could well be given, not only to committing additional systems to redistricting and rehousing for desirable grade-grouping for reorganization, but also to effecting improvements in systems already reorganized through more extensive introduction and development of the features characteristic of the junior high school.

THE RELATION BETWEEN HIGH-SCHOOL AND COLLEGE PARTICIPATION IN EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

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ALONG with the development of the "holism" concept in student personnel work, the view that students' extra-curriculum activities are a vital part of their total educative experience has become well accepted. Although some research has been conducted in restricted areas of the activity field, the developmental aspect of group activities has received little attention. This study was designed to yield some objective data pertaining to the continuity of participation in extra-curriculum activities as students progress. Specifically, the purpose of this investigation was to determine the relation between the extra-curriculum activities engaged in by certain urban high-school graduates while in high school and the subsequent participation of these students in college activities.

PROCEDURE

The study was restricted to the graduates of the seven Indianapolis public high schools who entered Indiana University in September, 1945, and in September, 1946. A random sample, stratified by year and by high school and including 350 students, was selected. After eliminating all transfer students and those who were enrolled at Indiana University for only two semesters or less, a group of 145 students remained for further investigation. Information was collected from records at the high-school offices, from the cumulative-record file of the dean of students' office at Indiana University, and from high-school and college yearbooks.

In order to evaluate the relative importance of participation in various activities, a generalized ten-point scale was established. The bases of this scale were the merit-point systems set up by the Association of Women Students' Board of Standards and the Men's Activities Limitations Board to administer the activities-limitation system in effect at Indiana University. In general, activities were categorized on the basis of the time, energy, and skill which the activity required of the student. Because officers in clubs and organizations are usually required to devote more time to the activity than are general members, officers were considered as more active participants

and given credit in accordance with their office.

A significant feature of the extra-curriculum program at Indiana University is its limiting aspect, wherein the extent of participation by a single student has an upper bound. This system is operated on the belief that no one person should accept too many offices so that (1) an individual student cannot monopolize offices and prohibit other students from having leadership experience and (2) the individual student will not be tempted to take on more positions than he can handle successfully.

TABLE 1

EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITY POINTS OF 145 STUDENTS ENTERING INDIANA UNIVERSITY FROM INDIANAPOLIS HIGH SCHOOLS IN SEPTEMBER, 1945, AND IN SEPTEMBER, 1946

Activity Points	Number of Students	
	High School	College
0– 2	36	58
3– 5	22	33
6– 8	23	17
9–11	18	8
12–14	13	6
15–17	4	4
18–20	4	3
21–23	8	1
24–26	5	4
27–29	2	1
30–32	3	4
33–35	1	1
36–38	3	0
39–41	2	1
42–44	0	1
45–47	0	1
48–50	1	1
51–53	0	1
Total	145	145
Mean:		
Men	9.0	4.8
Women	11.6	9.9

The activity-point scores of each student were computed for both college and high-school participation. These scores were then adjusted to equalize the temporal opportunity for earning activity points.

FINDINGS

Examination of the adjusted extra-curriculum activity points of the 145 students revealed several interesting facts. Table 1 shows the distribution of these measures.

The extreme range of activity scores in both high school and college was one of the most significant facts noted. The high-school indices ranged from 0 to 48, while the college indices ranged from 0 to 51.

A second fact implicit in Table 1 was that fewer college students were moderately or extremely active than were high-school students. More college than high-school students participated in few or in no activities.

The shape of the frequency polygons obtained by plotting the measures of Table 1 was also significant. Instead of being normal distributions, as might have been expected, they were definitely J-shaped. The effect of the activities-limitation system at Indiana University could not be accurately determined by this study. However, this system apparently had little or no effect on the extent of par-

ticipation of students as both the high-school distribution. (an unrestricted system) and the college distribution (under the limitations system) had the same general shape.

The relation between the high-school activity index and the college index was measured by computing chi square. The computed value of chi square, 34.87 with 9 degrees of freedom, was found to exceed the 1 per cent critical value of 21.67. It was thus demonstrated with a high degree of confidence that participation in high-school activities is associated with participation in college activities.

The means of the total high-school points and the total college points reported in Table 1 would indicate, at first glance, that women were considerably more active than men both in high school and in college. It is important to note that men's activity points were originally awarded on a scale slightly different from the women's scale. However, both high-school and college points for men were figured on one scale, and both high-school and college points for women were computed on another single scale. It is significant to observe that the average participation for men in college (4.8) was almost half what it was in high school (9.0), while the total high-school points for women (11.6) fell only 15 per cent (to 9.9 points).

CONCLUSIONS

From the results of this study the following conclusions were drawn.

1. A positive relationship existed between students' participation in high-school extra-curriculum activities and their subsequent participation in college activities.

2. There was extreme variation between individuals in the extent of participation in extra-curriculum activities by both high-school and college students.

3. The extent of participation in extra-curriculum activities did not follow a normal distribution pattern, but on both high-school and college levels the distribution definitely formed a J-shape histogram.

4. High-school students seemed to participate more actively than did college students. In high school there was participation by more students and a higher degree of participation per student.

5. The existence of a limitations system had no noticeable effect on the extent of participation in extra-curriculum activities. The restricted and unrestricted curves had the same general shape with no "chopped-off" effect apparent at the upper end of the limited-participation curve.

6. At both the high-school and college levels, women seemed to participate more actively than did men.

VISUAL PERFORMANCE AND SCHOLASTIC SUCCESS

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A DYNAMIC INTEREST in the visual efficiency of school children and its relation to their academic achievement and personality development has prompted the Alabama optometrists to organize various conferences and workshops and to assume responsibility for several studies in this field during the past three years. The co-operation of the Alabama–West Florida District of Civitan International as well as local educators, businessmen, and other professional workers has made these studies possible. The article presented here is a partial report of a research study which was an outgrowth of the First Annual Forum on Child Vision and is a follow-up of a paper prepared for the forum by the author.[1]

SUBJECTS AND PROCEDURE OF STUDY

The records of the students in one Alabama high school were made available for this study. Standardized-test data were on file, and a group of parent-teachers'-association mothers, carefully trained by experts in the use of the Ortho-Rater,[2] gave the visual performance tests to all the students in this school. The instrument measures twelve aspects of visual efficiency among which are near and far acuity. The subjects of the study were 164 members of the Senior class at Shades Valley High School for whom the data considered in this study were complete.

FINDINGS OF STUDY

Table 1 shows the relation between student ranks in the high-school graduating class, total scores on the Thurstone Primary Mental Abilities Test, and three measures of visual performance. Visual acuity, as measured by the Ortho-Rater, is expressed in numerical units from 0 through 15. The higher the number, the greater is the visual acuity. The average acuity at near for both eyes of the 164 high-school Seniors is 10.64.

Several marked sex differences are noticeable in this table. The data for the boys indicate a significant positive

[1] Nora C. Jenkins and John Hall Jones, "Vision and Total Personality Factors," *Optometric Weekly*, XLIII (August 28, 1952), 1387–92.

[2] The Ortho-Rater is an instrument perfected by Bausch and Lomb Optical Company for measuring the visual efficiency of employees in industry, which has been adapted for use with school children.

relation between scholastic rank and the difference between near and far acuity, while the data for the girls indicate practically no relation between these factors. A similar sex difference is observed in the correlation coefficients between the total mental scores and near-minus-far acuity. On the other hand, the data for the girls give a significant positive relation between total mental scores and near acuity for both eyes, while the data for the boys give a low negative correlation.

TABLE 1

RELATION BETWEEN RANK IN HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATING CLASS AND TOTAL PRIMARY MENTAL ABILITIES TEST AND CERTAIN VISUAL PERFORMANCE

Measures Correlated	Correlation Coefficient		
	Girls (87)	Boys (77)	Boys and Girls (164)
Rank in class with:			
Depth of far vision	.028	−.149	−.081
Near acuity, both eyes	.056	.191	.090
Near-minus-far acuity, both eyes	.073	.436*	.173†
Score on mental test	.411*	.488*	.442*
Score on mental test with:			
Depth of vision	.101	−.231†	−.077
Near acuity, both eyes	.305*	−.209	−.062
Near-minus-far acuity, both eyes	.122	.430*	.175†

* Significant at the .01 level.
† Significant at the .05 level.

The relation between academic achievement and the differences between near and far acuity seems to warrant further study. Table 2 gives the distributions of these differences for the sexes separately and for the total group. A positive difference indicates that the student's visual performance at near (ordinary reading) distance is better than his performance at far distance (measured at twenty feet). A negative difference indicates better visual performance at far distance. The data in this table show that there is no significant sex difference for this group of students in the relation of their visual efficiency at near and at far.

In Table 3 and Figure 1 the boys and the girls are each divided into three approximately equal groups according to their rank. The ranks were assigned on the basis of the entire class. Since a larger proportion of the

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTIONS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN NEAR AND FAR VISUAL ACUITY OF HIGH-SCHOOL SENIORS

Near-Minus-Far Acuity	Girls (87)	Boys (77)	Boys and Girls (164)
6	.....	2	2
5	3	.....	3
4	2	1	3
3	5	3	8
2	11	4	15
1	12	12	24
0	26	21	47
−1	17	19	36
−2	9	15	24
−3	2	.....	2
Total	87	77	164
Mean*	.356	−.052	.165
Standard deviation	1.76	1.70	1.74
Standard error of mean	.188	.194	.136

* Difference between the means of girls and boys is .408. The standard error of the difference between the means is .207.

girls had superior ranks and a larger proportion of the boys had low ranks, the division of the sex groups into thirds necessarily meant that a great many students in the high-third group of boys had ranks below some of those in the middle-third group of girls. Among the boys, there is a significant difference between the visual efficiency of the group with the highest ranks and of the group with the lowest ranks. The mean difference is 1.26 ± .341, with a critical ratio of 3.70. The group with the highest ranks has, on the average, better near vision and the group with the lowest ranks has better far vision.

On the other hand, the data for the

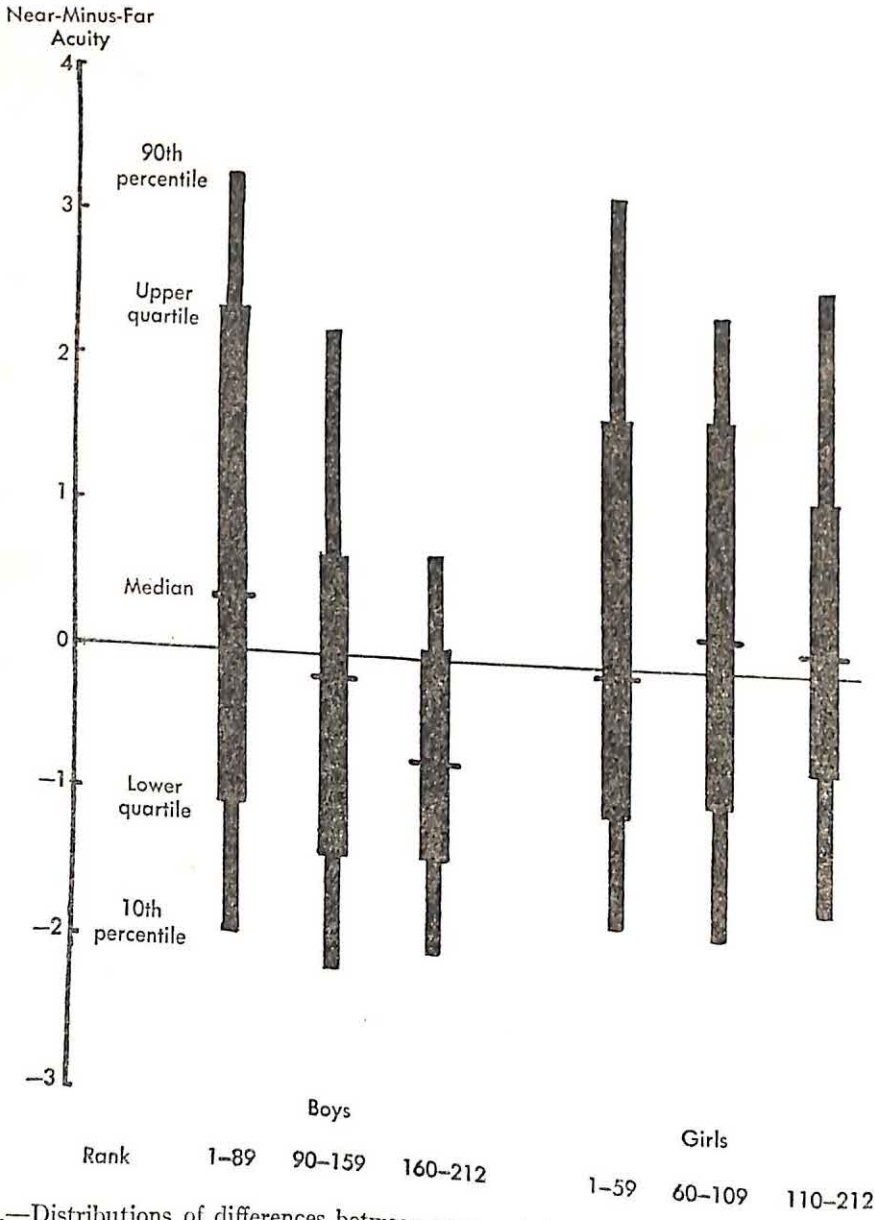

FIG. 1.—Distributions of differences between near and far acuity of boys and of girls grouped according to scholastic-achievement rank.

girls show practically no difference between high and low achievers in visual acuity. However, certain characteristics were observed for both sexes: the quartile deviations are largest for the high-ranking groups and smallest for the low-ranking groups; all the distributions are positively skewed; and there seems to be little variation between the groups at the lower ends of the distributions. The data in Table 3, as well as those in Figure 1, reiterate the sex differences shown by the correlation coefficients in Table 1.

TABLE 3

DISTRIBUTIONS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN NEAR AND FAR ACUITY OF BOYS AND GIRLS GROUPED ACCORDING TO SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT RANK

Near-Minus-Far Acuity	Rank in High-School Graduating Class					
	Boys			Girls		
	1–89	90–159	160–212	1–59	60–109	110–212
6	2	....	....	....	....	....
5	....	....	....	....	2	1
4	....	1	....	2	....	....
3	2	1	....	3	....	2
2	1	2	1	3	6	2
1	7	3	2	2	4	6
0	4	9	8	9	7	10
−1	5	4	10	7	5	5
−2	4	6	5	4	4	1
−3	....	....	....	....	....	2
Total	25	26	26	30	28	29
Mean vision score	.64	−.08	−.62	.33	.46	.28

IMPLICATIONS

By the use of the coefficient of determination, it is calculated that 45 per cent of the variance in the scholastic rank of the boys is related to a combination of their mental-test scores and their visual acuity, leaving 55 per cent associated with other undetermined factors. The data for the girls indicate that less than 18 per cent of the variance in their scholastic ranks is associated with factors measured by the Primary Mental Abilities Test and by the tests of visual acuity.

In the study we wish to point out, not the fact that there is so little correlation between scholastic achievement and the other factors, but that, for the boys, the association between visual performance and scholastic success is as great as the association between Primary Mental Abilities scores and scholastic success.

It is difficult to ascertain cause-and-effect relations, and no attempt is made to do so in this paper. However, further studies are being made concerning other measures of visual performance of these same students and their relation to the results of personality and vocational-interest inventories.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON HIGHER EDUCATION

MANNING M. PATTILLO AND NORMAN BURNS
University of Chicago

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THIS LIST of references is a selection from materials on higher education that have come to the attention of the compilers between July 1, 1952, and June 30, 1953. Institutional histories, annual reports, yearbooks, and proceedings of associations regularly devoted to the problems of colleges and universities have not been included.

The compilers have tried to select from the large amount of published material those items that they believe will be most helpful to informed practitioners in the field of higher education. Readers who have used this list of references in the past will observe that the list has been made more selective this year. The compilers have taken pains to include only books and articles which, in their judgment, deal with problems of enduring interest.

This year's literature in the field of higher education reflects the growing volume of criticism of colleges and universities, both from without and from within. Assumptions that have influenced the shape of higher education for a generation or more are being re-examined on a wide scale. Special attention is being directed to the place of moral and spiritual values in collegiate education, to the limitations of the scientific method and of philosophical neutrality, to academic freedom and indoctrination, and to the financial problems of higher institutions. The compilers have the impression that the literature as a whole is more reflective, more penetrating than that published before the Korean War. The impact of world affairs and the intellectual tension caused by communism seem to have led to a more fundamental kind of thinking. Certainly it is not too much to anticipate that the present soul-searching in higher education at the level of theory will, in due time, result in spectacular changes at the level of practice.

806. BLOOM, B. S. "Thought-Processes in Lectures and Discussions," *Journal of General Education*, VII (April, 1953), 160–69.

Reports data secured in a study of the types of thought engaged in by college students during lectures and discussions. The results suggest that the discussion method of teaching is more effective in evoking active types of thinking, such as evaluation, synthesis, and application, than is the lecture method. The study employed a carefully devised stimulated-recall procedure.

807. "By Their Own Petard: The Universities' Troubles Are Partly of Their Making," *Barron's: National Business and Financial Weekly*, XXXII (December

1, 1952), 1. (Reprinted in *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXIX [May, 1953], 243–45.)

A provocative editorial in which it is argued that universities have contributed to the very financial distress from which they now suffer, by nurturing economic views inimical to capitalism and freedom. The point is made that, if private institutions of higher learning are to look to businessmen for support, they must abandon "neutrality in the great struggle between liberty and serfdom."

808. CAPEN, SAMUEL P. *The Management of Universities*. Buffalo, New York: Foster & Stewart Publishing Corp., 1953. Pp. xii+288.

A collection of papers and speeches written or delivered in the last thirty years by the Chancellor Emeritus of the University of Buffalo. The subjects dealt with include the responsibilities of trustees, the responsibilities of university teachers, aspects of the university presidency, university reform, problems of professional education, contributions of universities in periods of national emergency, and the ill effects that accrediting has on universities.

809. CARMICHAEL, OLIVER C. "Neglected Areas in Education," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXVIII (Autumn, 1952), 356–67.

Identifies the following as areas in which higher education is seriously deficient: treatment of fundamental philosophical questions, teaching for understanding (as contrasted with teaching for knowledge only), and commitment to essential-values. Calls for a rededication to the search for meaning.

810. CHALMERS, GORDON KEITH. *The Republic and the Person*. Chicago: Henry Regnery Co., 1952. Pp. 270.

A collection of essays concerned with the purpose of education, particularly with the goal of collegiate education. Suggests that the redirection of education to meet the present challenge to liberty will require "an abandonment of the disintegrated or sentimental liberalism of the pacifist and appeasement era"—the liberalism still reflected in most documents on education —and "the adoption of an ethical liberalism based on critical knowledge of the nature of individual man." Attention is given to the study of history, poetry, philosophy, social science, and science as means of educating persons who will have an understanding of man, his nature, and his place.

811. COMMISSION ON FINANCING HIGHER EDUCATION. *Nature and Needs of Higher Education*. New York: Published for the Commission on Financing Higher Education by Columbia University Press, 1952. Pp. xiv+192.

The final report of the Commission's findings and recommendations. Discusses the contribution of higher education to American life, diversified control and programs as the key to freedom in higher education, the economic condition of colleges and universities, and the most promising sources of additional support. Warns against too heavy reliance on the federal government for support of higher institutions because of the danger of central control. The report is based on the assumption that higher education should serve students drawn primarily from the upper 25 per cent in intellectual capacity.

812. DODDS, HAROLD W.; HACKER, LOUIS M.; and ROGERS, LINDSAY. *Government Assistance to Universities in Great Britain: Memoranda Submitted to the Commission on Financing Higher Education*. New York: Published for the Commission on Financing Higher Education by Columbia University Press, 1952. Pp. xiv+134.

Comprises separate reports by the three authors on the success of the University Grants Committee of the British government. All three agree that the machinery for the financial support of British universities by the central government is generally satisfactory to both the government and the universities but that this support has led to governmental influence on academic policy and is giving rise to concern over

the continued freedom of the universities. Provides information about the British experience that might be suggestive to American higher education.

813. FAUST, CLARENCE H. "The Humanities in the College Curriculum," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXIX (March, 1953), 30–35.

Advances the position that the importance of the humanities in developing the capacity for reflective thought and for creative achievements in literature and the arts (that is, in developing the highest human capacities), transcends the value of the humanities in giving coherence and direction to society. Holds that the humanities must be taught rigorously with a view to clarifying ideas and judgments, rather than historically and descriptively, if they are to accomplish their educational purpose. Faust believes that the discussion method, in and out of the classroom, is the best teaching technique in the humanities.

814. *General Education in School and College: A Committee Report by Members of the Faculties of Andover, Exeter, Lawrenceville, Harvard, Princeton, and Yale.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1952. Pp. viii+142.

Summarizes the findings and recommendations of a committee which was concerned primarily with the integration of school and college education in order to avoid duplication of courses and to provide a thorough general education for able students. One important observation in the report is that gifted and well-prepared students commonly find the first two years of college repetitious and uninteresting. The committee recommends the adoption of a co-ordinated seven-year program for qualified students as an alternative to the usual four years of secondary school and four years of college leading to the B.A. degree.

815. GREENE, THEODORE M. *Liberal Education Reconsidered.* The Inglis Lecture, 1953. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1953. Pp. 46.

Outlines a theoretical framework for liberal education "oriented to the person as both unique and social, and to man's environment as both spatio-temporal and eternal." The author conceives of teaching as an art concerned with the total personality of the student and as best carried on in a free and co-operative academic community.

816. HAVEMANN, ERNEST, and WEST, PATRICIA SALTER. *They Went to College.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1952. Pp. x+278.

Reports the findings of a study by *Time* magazine of the opinions and status of nine thousand college graduates in the United States. Among the topics analyzed are income, marital status, political views, church membership, and attitudes toward higher education. The mode of presentation is popular and largely statistical.

817. HOFSTADTER, RICHARD, and HARDY, C. DE WITT. *The Development and Scope of Higher Education in the United States.* New York: Published for the Commission on Financing Higher Education by Columbia University Press, 1952. Pp. xii+254.

Contains two distinct parts: one by Hofstadter, on the history of higher education in the United States; the other by Hardy, on the functions of colleges and universities at the present time. Both parts are comprehensive, bringing together in compact form the substance of a large number of special studies in the fields of history and philosophy.

818. KNAPP, ROBERT H., and GREENBAUM, JOSEPH J. *The Younger American Scholar: His Collegiate Origins.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press and Wesleyan University Press, Incorporated, for Wesleyan University, 1953. Pp. xiv+122.

Reports the findings of a research project conducted under a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education, in which a comparative study was made of the

achievements of about six hundred American undergraduate institutions in the graduation of persons who won post-graduate academic distinction during the period 1946–51. Individual colleges and universities are ranked, and some conclusions are drawn as to the characteristics of intellectually productive institutions. Perhaps the most significant finding is the strikingly superior record of small, privately controlled, high-cost colleges in New England and the North Central regions in the training of prospective scholars.

819. LEWIS, WILMARTH S. "The Trustees of the Privately Endowed University," *American Scholar*, XXII (Winter, 1952–53), 17–27.

An experienced trustee presents his conclusions on the proper role of members of governing boards. Offers five rules of academic society, which may be summarized briefly as follows; the scholar has the same rights as other citizens; the trustee must not think of the scholar as an employee; academic tenure should be respected; trustees should accept presidential recommendations with respect to appointments; and scholars should enjoy freedom in teaching, but they should not indoctrinate students with their personal prejudices.

820. LIVINGSTONE, R. W. *Education and the Spirit of the Age*. London: Oxford University Press, 1952. Pp. viii+116.

Describes the role played by liberalism and science in the breakup of accepted beliefs and standards during the past century. Urges a more systematic study of religion and philosophy as a part of university education. Gives special attention to the need for a modern ethical theory, perhaps patterned on Aristotle's *Ethics*, that would serve as a basis for living. The last two chapters discuss the importance and limitations of science and the educational means of restoring balance to the modern outlook.

821. MELAND, BERNARD EUGENE. *Higher Education and the Human Spiri*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. x+204.

Examines the quality of experience provided by higher education today and proposes that much more attention be given in the classroom to the development of creative imagination. The author holds that descriptive analysis, though valuable, has been permitted to assume too large a place in academic thinking, almost to the exclusion of appreciative and perceptive experience. Suggests educational means by which the human spirit can be nurtured.

822. MILLETT, JOHN D. *Financing Higher Education in the United States*. New York: Published for the Commission on Financing Higher Education by Columbia University Press, 1952. Pp. xx+506.

Summarizes, in one of the most comprehensive volumes ever published in the field of higher education, the extensive staff research of the Commission on Financing Higher Education. Includes not only an elaborate analysis of the financial problems of colleges and universities but also sections dealing with the history, scope, and structure of American higher education. Contains much valuable material not readily available elsewhere.

823. NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON THE PREPARATION OF A MANUAL ON COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION. *College and University Business Administration*, Vol. I. Washington: American Council on Education, 1952. Pp. xiv+218.

The result of seven years of study by a committee of business officers, this volume contains sections on the principles of college and university business administration, accounting principles and procedures, and reports and financial statements. Supersedes the earlier publication entitled *Financial Reports for Colleges and Universities*.

824. NICHOLS, J. H. "Oberlin College Sports Program," *North Central Association*

Quarterly, XXVII (April, 1953), 370–76.

Describes the intercollegiate athletic policies of Oberlin College, emphasizing the educational impact of a soundly conceived athletic program. Among the aspects discussed are administration, finances, academic requirements, recruitment and admission of students, scope of the program, basis for competition with other colleges, and securing understanding of the program.

825. PENNOCK, J. ROLAND. "The Swarthmore Honors System," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXIV (February, 1953), 57–63, 106.

Reviews the principles underlying the honors program at Swarthmore College and examines some of the criticisms that have been made of it. Concludes that the system is theoretically sound and has been successful in stimulating superior students to a high level of intellectual achievement.

826. "A Reappraisal of the Philosophy and Purposes of Higher Education: A Report of the Discussion of the Problems and Policies Committee of the Council," *Educational Record*, XXXIV (July, 1953), 231–44.

Includes the following essays: "The Impact of the Expansion of Knowledge" by Charles W. Cole, "Education and America's Need" by Gordon Keith Chalmers, and "Greater Recognition of Moral and Spiritual Values" by John J. Cavanaugh. Each essay is followed by a summary of discussion by the members of the Problems and Policies Committee of the American Council on Education. The entire report emphasizes the need for a critical examination of college and university curriculums in the light of present conditions.

827. RIESMAN, DAVID. "Values in Context," *American Scholar*, XXII (Winter, 1952–53), 29–39.

Questions the assumptions that there has been a decline in values and that agreement on values is necessary for social coherence. Expresses concern over the possible consequences of the present movement toward inculcation of standard values in education.

828. STORR, RICHARD J. *The Beginnings of Graduate Education in America*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. x+196.

Traces the pre-Civil War history of graduate study in the arts and sciences. Shows that graduate education in the United States developed over a period of years, rather than suddenly with the establishment of the Johns Hopkins graduate school, as is generally supposed. A valuable feature of this book is the extensive bibliography on the early history of American higher education.

829. TURNER, MARSHALL S., JR. "A Reemphasis on Intercollegiate Athletics: A Report on the Johns Hopkins University Athletic Program," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXVII (April, 1953), 334–39.

Describes the policies and underlying theory of the Johns Hopkins University athletic program, the purpose of which is to secure the maximum educational value from intercollegiate competition and to reduce to a minimum the commercial aspects of sport.

830. WOOTON, BARBARA. "Reflections on Resigning a Professorship," *Universities Quarterly*, VII (November, 1952), 36–49.

Discusses the difficulty of reconciling the demands of teaching, research, administration, and public service on the time and energy of university professors, especially those in the social sciences. Considers the desirability of separating teaching and research as a means of promoting both functions. Makes several suggestions for relieving department heads of their administrative burden.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Improving Transition from School to College: How Can School and College Best Cooperate? Edited by ARTHUR E. TRAXLER and AGATHA TOWNSEND. A Study of College Admission by the Committee on School and College Relations of the Educational Records Bureau. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1953. Pp. xviii+166. $2.75.

This study provides a detailed description of admission practices commonly found in American colleges today, together with a critical evaluation of their validity and adequacy. The information from which the study is drawn was secured from questionnaires sent to eleven hundred colleges in 1949 and to two thousand high schools in 1950. Responses were received from 55 per cent of both colleges and schools. Although replies came from all types of institutions and from all regions, most of the material seems to apply primarily to independent colleges and to eastern secondary schools, both independent and public.

The wealth of material available and the experience of the authors has led to a book which deserves a wide reading among school counselors, particularly those with students planning to apply to the more competitive colleges, and among college admissions officers. There are two major contributions. The first is the wealth of information supplied about present practices. The second is the emphasis given to the desirability of using the information that is gathered for purposes of admission to aid in the continued guidance of the student after college is entered. There are excellent suggestions as to information which could be added, with profit to all concerned. This emphasis is much needed.

The authors deserve credit also for expressing clearly their beliefs as to philosophy which should guide the development of the educational programs in both schools and colleges They have been consistent in judging the validity of admissions practices by these stated standards. The point of view "is that college ought to be a continuation of a broad, liberal, individual-centered and community-oriented education begun in [the high] school" (p. 117). Readers who agree with this point of view will undoubtedly approve of most of the criticisms expressed about present practices.

In spite of these good features, the study suffers from several serious weaknesses. First, the writers seem to assume that it is very difficult for students to secure admission to college and that the difficulties arise primarily from the rigid subject-matter pattern which colleges impose upon applicants. Now, the assumption that it is difficult for high-school Seniors to get into American colleges simply is not true. The per cent of high-school Seniors going on to college is now at an all-time high, a point which is borne out by the authors' own chart on school enrolments (p. 129). Virtually any high-school graduate who can afford the cost of college can secure admission to some college, regardless of the high-school record.

Second, the authors give considerable space to the alleged evil influences of the college-imposed pattern of subject-matter requirements. This is, of course, an old lament in some secondary-school circles, but it is a point of view not widely shared in col-

leges. The evidence assembled by the writers throws virtually no new light on the problem and provides little evidence to support the thesis advanced. The present college enrolment shows beyond argument that students do not find subject-matter requirements a serious obstacle from the point of view of getting into college, and the range of courses now offered in secondary schools suggests that freedom of schools to introduce new courses has not been greatly restricted.

A third serious weakness is that the authors have elected to characterize anything of which they approve as "liberal" and, at least by implication, the things of which they disapprove as "conservative." The word "liberal" is used so loosely that it conveys little meaning. Surely no possible good is served by such a statement as: "Objections to the ranking of high-school graduates could be met to a considerable degree by defining the basis for ranking, and, at the same time, placing it on a more liberal basis" (p. 107). Or, "colleges that have liberalized their own curriculums will inevitably have liberal entrance requirements" (p. 117). A Robert Hutchins would assert that the Great Books program would be far more liberalizing than an "individual-centered, community-oriented" program, and he would have an equal right to the use of the term.

Fourth, there is a marked tendency to make "liberalizing entrance requirements," which the authors recommend, appear to be synonymous with the elimination of all entrance requirements. It may well be socially desirable that many colleges operate on this assumption, but it is difficult to see what good would result from reducing all collegiate institutions to such a level.

One value of the book is that, at least for the reviewer, it continuously led to a reexamination of his own philosophy about both admissions procedure and college programs.

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CHARLES W. BOARDMAN, HARL R. DOUGLASS, and RUDYARD K. BENT, *Democratic Supervision in Secondary Schools*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1953. Pp. xii+558. $5.00.

The essential and continuing task of all persons engaged in the work of the schools is the improvement of instruction at all educational levels. The plain realities of contemporary living coupled with the on-going world struggle between democracy and totalitarianism make it clear that the schools must discharge their responsibilities with increasing effectiveness. This is especially true of our secondary schools, where more than three-fourths of the youth of the nation conclude their experience with formal education.

The authors of *Democratic Supervision in Secondary Schools* believe that the school in a democratic society must be organized and operated in accordance with the fundamental principles and values of democracy. Under these conditions, supervision attempts to achieve improvements in the instructional program by constantly paying high regard to the worth and dignity of all individuals and by relying on the co-operative participation of all members concerned in the study and solution of educational problems. Although the volume is organized in a manner similar to that of the earlier publication by Douglass and Boardman on supervision, the former chapters have been either entirely rewritten or thoroughly revised, and several new chapters have been added. Whenever possible, the authors have used research data and evaluative studies as the bases for discussions on supervisory principles and practices.

The content of the volume is presented in four major parts. The first of these is concerned with the nature and organization of supervision. After discussing the definition and scope of supervision, the emerging concept of democratic leadership, and the administrative organization of supervisory services, Part I presents a chapter on the "Principal as an Educational Leader" and, in a final chapter, discusses the factors to be

considered in planning co-operatively for the improvement of instruction. The techniques for improving instruction are reported and developed in Part II. The authors discuss in considerable detail principles and procedures related to classroom observation, individual and group conferences, and teacher appraisal and report on techniques for obtaining, through research studies and tests, evidence regarding the effectiveness of the instructional program. The eighth and final chapter of this part of the volume presents other techniques, including demonstration teaching and intervisitation, for stimulating the in-service growth of teacher personnel.

The several types of supervisory services are discussed in the third part of this practical and informative volume on secondary-school supervision. From the initial chapters dealing with the selection and organization of learning experiences, through succeeding chapters on adjusting individual differences among pupils, directing pupil study methods, improving teacher participation in school activities and services, treating individual differences among teachers, and stimulating teacher participation in community affairs, the reader is furnished with a comprehensive analysis of the principal services rendered to teachers by supervisory personnel. The volume concludes with a final part devoted to the factors for consideration in the evaluation of the supervisory program.

Democratic Supervision in Secondary Schools is a valuable reference book, especially for teachers and students of educational administration; for the administrative and supervisory officers of school systems, large and small; and for members of boards of education. The presence of tabular data, diagrams, and charts, combined with carefully selected bibliographies appended to each chapter, adds to the general usefulness of this publication.

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FLORENCE GREENHOE ROBBINS, *Educational Sociology: A Study in Child, Youth, School, and Community.* New York 17: Henry Holt & Co., 1953. Pp. xiv+530. $4.75.

This book has been prepared as a textbook for undergraduate courses in educational sociology. As the outgrowth of ten years of teaching prospective teachers in the College of Education of Ohio State University, the book is in part a statement of the philosophy, aims, and methods which underlie the author's teaching. The book includes teaching aids of various types and draws heavily from reports of class projects and assignments.

At first inspection, the over-all organization of the book seems logical and coherent and would seem to deal with the major topics of importance to prospective teachers. After an introductory chapter dealing with the scope of educational sociology, the content of the book is organized into three parts. Part I, entitled "The Social and Cultural Orientation of the Child," proceeds from a brief discussion of the child's original nature to socialization and social learning, development in childhood and adolescence, the child in the family, the child and his peers. There is a chapter on religion in the life of the child and a chapter on mass media of communication. Part II focuses upon the school: its role in society, the school as a social world, and the special culture of the school. Part III consists of two chapters on the integration of child, school, and community.

Upon closer inspection, however, the content of the book leaves something to be desired. The problem of what to include and what to omit in a textbook is admittedly difficult. In this case, however, one questions the inclusion of a long appendix dealing with such topics as play therapy and dance therapy for the child with mental-health problems, when nowhere in the book is there a discussion of intergroup education; or why, when a whole section of the book is devoted to the sociology of the school, there is no

description of the over-all structure of the school as a social institution. Similarly, while the author recognizes the importance of social-class differences in discussing the sociology of the family, social class is not dealt with in terms of its importance in the sociology of the school. Beyond referring to the fact that most teachers are middle class in origin and that the school is, by and large, a middle-class institution, little attention is given to the problems (in administration, curriculum, and community relations) that the school faces in dealing with children of varying social classes—a whole area which, from the point of view of this reviewer, is of primary relevance to the prospective teacher. To select another example at a more specific level: in the two pages devoted to a discussion of heredity, the author chooses to discuss such topics as twinning and the Rh blood factor, while the more general and more relevant question of the role of heredity in personality or in intelligence is not even mentioned.

As regards presentation of the content, the book is not a particularly good example of expository writing. Ideas and concepts are juxtaposed in a way that is likely to prove confusing to the undergraduate. Terms such as "identification," "monism," and "Electra complex" and "Oedipus complex" are used but not explained. There are many excellent photographs in the book, but the photographs are not often related to the text. Whole sections are given over to illustrative material, but little attempt is made to summarize or generalize from the illustrations. In the author's evident attempt to write in an easy, informal style, the writing often takes on a hasty and garbled quality. The book bears other marks of hasty preparation. There are too many typographical errors, misspellings of authors' names, and inaccuracies in bibliographical data and in the Index.

In the opinion of this reviewer, Mrs. Robbins' book falls short of being a satisfactory textbook. This is doubly unfortunate because at present the instructor who seeks a good textbook in educational sociology finds no great number of titles from which to choose.

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WILLIAM LEE NEFF and MABEL GERTRUDE PLANER, *World History for a Better World*. Milwaukee 1: Bruce Publishing Co., 1953. Pp. xxii+796+22. $4.36.

The attempt to teach the whole of world history in one school year is a task which is likely to leave the teacher with feelings of dissatisfaction and frustration, especially if he is a well-trained student of history. To prepare a textbook for such a course demands the best in scholarship and skill, if the author is to avoid the extremes of encyclopedic detail or of superficial treatment. To attempt to evaluate fairly a world-history textbook is both a challenging and a bewildering responsibility. All of this should make it evident that the present reviewer approaches his task with fairly definite reservations.

On the whole, *World History for a Better World* compares favorably with other representative books in the field. The style is direct and addressed often to the pupil. However, the vocabulary is rather heavy and might be above the heads of many tenth-graders. The story of world history is divided into eighteen units, of from one to seven chapters each. There is an introductory survey for each unit, with study aids at the end of each chapter. This means that the story is likely to be pretty much broken up into very small units, a fact which might tend to encourage a piecemeal presentation instead of a larger unit approach. The reviewer feels that no author has as yet really solved the problem of what to include and what to leave out in the one-year course in world history. This book is, in respect to solving this problem, somewhat more satisfying than the average.

From the point of view of historical accuracy, there are the usual number of errors and misstatements, no doubt due in part to the tendency toward oversimplification which is a characteristic of most textbooks in this category. For example, *compurgation* (p. 6) was a form of trial, not a method of punishment as stated. To describe Schliemann (p. 55) as an American citizen of German birth is correct and, at the same time, misleading, when one recalls that he acquired citizenship by chance and spent at most a few months of his life in the United States, returning only when it suited his purposes to do so. On page 166 one reads "Garden of Olives" for "Garden of Gethsemane." The description of the Elizabethan religious settlement (p. 283) is greatly oversimplified and would no doubt be criticized by most Anglicans. In the discussion of the Ems Dispatch (p. 345) and the attendant circumstances, the reviewer would like to see the dual responsibility for the Franco-Prussian War made more apparent. The account as it stands is the traditional one and needs amplification.

Reference has been made to the teaching organization of the book. Mention should also be made of the teaching aids, which consume a great deal of space and show painstaking care in their preparation. The reviewer would have welcomed a greater number of thought-questions among the questions to be answered at the end of each chapter. There seems to be considerable emphasis on memorization at the expense of a problem approach, although some questions are suggested for group discussion.

It is encouraging to find some slight recognition of the importance of geography to an understanding of world history. There are also some good, though very brief, chapters on cultural history. Illustrations and maps are well chosen, especially those maps which show topographical features.

Mention should be made of the title: "World History for a Better World." The motivation back of such a title is commendable, but some students of history feel that the dangers of a didactic approach are sure to arise. However, a careful reading of this textbook gives little reason for such scruples. The presentation is, on the whole, objective, and there is a minimum of preachment.

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